A

MEMOIR

ON THE

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION

OF THE

BLACK SEA,

AND THE

TRADE AND MARITIME GEOGRAPHY

OF

Turkey and Egypt.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

Illustrated with Charts.

By HENRY A. S. DEARBORN.

Depuis Tyr, jusqu'à nos jours, nous avons vu successivement la puissance relative des états, et leur prosperité intérieure, dépendre de l'étendue, et de la solidité de leurs relations commerciales. SICARD.

VOL. I.

BOSTON:
PUBLISHED BY WELLS AND LILLY
1819.

A

MEMOIR

ON THE

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION

OF THE

BLACK SEA,

AND THE

TRADE AND MARITIME GEOGRAPHY

OF

Turkey and Egypt.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

Illustrated with Charts.

Adams/60.12
Vol. 1

By HENRY A. S. DEARBORN.

Depuis Tyr, jusqu' a nos jours, nous avons vu successivement la puissance relative des états, et leur prosperité intérieure, dépendre de l'étendue, et de la solidité de leurs relations commerciales. SICARD.

VOL. I.

2235
2

BOSTON:
PUBLISHED BY WELLS AND LILLY.
.....
1819.

C

ADAMS/60,12

DISTRICT OF MASSACHUSETTS, TO WIT:

District Clerk's Office.

BE it remembered, that on the nineteenth day of April, A. D. 1819, in the Forty-third Year of the Independence of the United States of America, *Henry A. S. Dearborn* of the said District, has deposited in this Office the Title of a Book the Right whereof he claims as Author in the Words following, *to wit:* A Memoir on the Commerce and Navigation of the Black Sea, and the Trade and Maritime Geography of Turkey and Egypt. In two volumes illustrated with Charts. By *Henry A. S. Dearborn.* Depuis Tyr, jusqu' a nos jours, nous avons vu successivement la puissance relative des états, et leur prosperité, intérieure dépendre de l' étendue, et de la solidité de leurs relations commerciales. *Sicard.*

In Conformity to the Act of the Congress of the United States, entitled, "An Act for the Encouragement of Learning, by securing the Copies of Maps, Charts and Books, to the Authors and Proprietors of such Copies, during the Times therein mentioned:" and also to an Act entitled, "An Act supplementary to an Act, entitled, An Act for the Encouragement of Learning, by securing the Copies of Maps, Charts and Books, to the Authors and Proprietors of such Copies during the times therein mentioned; and extending the Benefits thereof to the Arts of Designing, Engraving and Etching Historical, and other Prints."

JNO. W. DAVIS,
Clerk of the District of Massachusetts.

TO

THE MERCHANTS

AND

Navigators

OF THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,

THE FOLLOWING

MEMOIR

IS RESPECTFULLY INSCRIBED

BY

THE AUTHOR.

CONTENTS OF VOLUME FIRST.

PREFACE ix

A LIST OF THE WORKS FROM WHICH THIS MEMOIR WAS COMPILED xi

INTRODUCTION xv

THE HISTORY OF THE COMMERCE OF THE BLACK SEA 1

TURKEY 133

TURKEY IN EUROPE 133

TURKEY IN ASIA 135

TERRITORIES OF TURKEY ON THE BLACK SEA . 137

RUMELIA 137

Constantinople 138

Adrianople 191

Bosporus of Thrace 194

Ineada 198

Burgos 199

Sizeboli 199

Tchingana 200

Ahiolu 200

Messouri 200

BULGARIA 200

Sophia 202

Varna 203

Kara-Kerman 204

ANATOLIA 205

ANATOLIA PROPER 206
Angora 206
Erekli 207
Amastra 208
Ghydros 209
Ineboli 210
Sinope 210
AMASIA 214
Samsoun 214
Amasia 215
Uniah 216
Fatsa 216
Badjiah 216
Kerasount 217
Tireboli 218
Trebisond 218
Surmineth 220
Of 220
Rize 220
Mapoora 220
Athenab 220
Castram 220
Laros 220
Gounieth 220
Tocat 221
TERRITORIES OF RUSSIA ON THE BLACK SEA AND SEA OF AZOF 223
THE GOVERNMENT OF BESSARABIA 223
Ismail 224
Kilia 226
Tartar Buna 226
Akerman 226
THE GOVERNMENT OF CHERSON 229
Ovidiopol 230
Odessa 233
Otchakov 260
Nicolajev 261
Cherson 265

THE GOVERNMENT OF TAURIDA 282
Perecop 295
Eupatoria 297
Sevastopol 298
Balaclava 305
Caffa 308
Kertchy 312
Yenikale 316
Akmetchet 318
Stara Crim 322
Karasubazar 323
Baktcheserai 323
Taganrock 327
Petrowskaia 340
Miripol 340
Azof 340
Rastof 344
Nakhtshivan 345
Tcherchaskoy 349
Voronetz 356
Taman 358

THE GOVERNMENT OF GEORGIA 360
Anapa 371
Sagoudjak 371
Ghelindjak 371
Anarghia 372
Isgaoun 372
Poti 372
Teflis 373

PREFACE.

I was first impressed with the importance, which the trade of the Black Sea and Turkey would ultimately become to the United States, from a conversation with Commodore William Bainbridge, some ten years since, in relation to his voyage to Constantinople, in the frigate George Washington. Since that period, I have eagerly sought information on a subject, of such peculiar interest to this commercial nation; and during the past year, my leisure hours have been devoted to the compilation of a work, containing a history of the commerce of the Euxine from the earliest ages; a description of all the principal cities and towns situated upon its shores; their exports and imports; observations on the navigation of that sea, and the trade and maritime geography of Turkey and Egypt; with a brief

account of the most remarkable events and antiquities, for which those interesting portions of the globe are celebrated. With great diffidence I lay it before the public.

Among the numerous volumes, which have been published, respecting Turkey, Egypt and the territories of Russia, bordering on the Black Sea, finding none, which embraced a connected geographical, historical, and statistical account of those regions, I was induced to take this hazardous step. No merit is claimed for the mere labour of arranging materials, which were chiefly furnished by the most distinguished ancient and modern writers. I am fully aware of my inability to perform, even this duty, in a manner worthy of commendation; but believing that my humble efforts might, at least, tend to awaken a spirit of inquiry, I ask that indulgence for my presumption, which a generous people are ever ready to extend towards those, who anxiously endeavour to subserve the republic.

Brinley Place,
February, 2d, 1819.

A

LIST OF THE WORKS

FROM WHICH THIS MEMOIR HAS BEEN CHIEFLY COMPILED.

A Description of the East and some other countries, by RICHARD POCOCKE, 2 vol. fol.

A Survey of the Turkish Empire, by W. EATON, 8vo.

A Sketch of the Military and Political Power of Russia, 8vo.

A Collection of Late Voyages and Travels, by ROBERT HERON, 8vo.

An Account of the Navigation and Commerce of the Black Sea, by CHARLES WILKINSON, 8vo.

A Concise Account of the Commerce and Navigation of the Black Sea, 8vo.

BEAUJOUR'S View of the Commerce of Greece, 8vo.

BELOE'S Herodotus, 4 vol. 8vo.

BIGLAND'S View of the World, 5 vol. 8vo.

——— History of England, 2 vol. 8vo.

BRUCE'S Travels in Abyssinia, 7 vol. 8vo.

BROOKES' Gazetteer, 8vo.

CLARK'S Travels in Various Countries of Europe, Asia and Africa, 4 vol. 4to.

CHATEAUBRIAND'S Travels in Greece, Palestine, Egypt and Barbary, 8vo.

Du Commerce Francais dans L'Etat Actuel de l'Europe, par J. B. DUBOIS, 8vo.

DENON'S Egypt.

DR. REES' New Cyclopædia.

DUBOST'S Elements of Commerce, 2 vol. 8vo.

Diodore de Sicile, traduit par TIRASSAR, 7 vol. 8vo.

EATON's Commerce of the Mediterranean, 8vo.

Essai Historique sur le Commerce et la Navigation de la Mer-Noire, 8vo.

Examen Critique des Anciens Historiens D'Alexandre le Grand 1 vol. 4to.

Geographie Ancienne, par M. D'ANVILLE, 3 vol. 12mo.

Geographie de Strabon, 4 vol. 4to.

GIBBON's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, 12 vol. 8vo.

GUTHRIE's Geography.

Histoire Philosophique du Mond Primitif, par J. DEL DE SALES, 7 vol. 8vo.

Histoire Naturelle de Pline, 12 vol. 4to.

Histoire des Expeditions D'Alexandre, par FLAVE ARRIEN de NICOMEDIE, 3 vol. 8vo. et atlas 4to.

History of Ancient Greece, by WILLIAM ROBERTSON, 1 vol. 8vo.

JACKSON's Account of the Empire of Morocco.

Journey over land to India, by DONALD CAMPBELL, 4to.

Josephus, 4 vol. 8vo.

Karamania, by FRANCIS BEAUFORT, 1 vol. 8vo.

Lettres sur Odessa, par SICARD AINE, 12mo.

Letters of Lady M. W. MONTAGUE, 5 vol. 12mo.

Letters from the Levant, by JOHN GALT, 12mo.

Letters of a Traveller in the various countries of Europe, Asia and Africa, 8vo.

LEDIARD's Naval History of England IV. fol.

LADY CRAVEN's Journey through the Crimea, to Constantinople, 1 vol. 4to.

LANGDORFF's Voyages and Travels, 8vo.

MONTEFIORE's Commercial Dictionary, 4 vol. 8vo.

Maritime Geography and Statistis, by JAMES HINGSTON TUKKEY, 4 vol. 8vo.

Memoire sur un Nouveau Peryple du Pont Euxine, par LE COMTE JEAN POTOCKI, 4to.

New Edinburgh Encyclopædia.

ODDY's European Commerce, 2 vol. 8vo.

PLUTARCH's Lives, 8 vol. 12mo.

PINKERTON's Modern Geography, 2 vol. 4to.

Reflections on the Commerce of the Mediterranean, by JOSEPH JACKSON, 12mo.

ROLLIN'S Ancient History, 8 vol. 12mo.

Relation d'un Voyage du Levant, par M. PETTON de TOURNEFORT, 4to.

State of Egypt, by REYNIER, General of Division, 8vo.

SONINI'S Travels in Egypt, 4to.

SPELMAN'S Xenophon, 2 vol. 8vo.

Supplement to the Encyclopædia Brittanica.

TOOKE'S Catharine II., 2 vol. 8vo.

The Description of Greece, by PAUSANIAS, 3 vol. 8vo.

TOOKE'S View of Russia, 3 vol. 8vo.

Travels in the Crimea, by a Secretary to the Russian Embassy, 8vo.

The Present State of Turkey, by THOMAS THORNTON.

The Geographical System of Herodotus, by JAMES RENNEL, 4to.

Travels through Syria and Egypt, by M. C. VOLNEY, 2 vol. 8vo.

Travels in Turkey, Italy and Russia, by THOMAS MACGILL, 2 vol. 12mo.

Travels by ALI BEY, 2 vol. 8vo.

The Life of Field Marshal SOUVAROF, 8vo.

The Voyages and Travels of the Ambassadors sent by Frederick Duke of Holstein to the Grand Duke of Muscovy and the King of Persia, &c., by ADAM OLEARIUS, 1 vol. fol.

The World Displayed, by SMART, GOLDSMITH and JOHNSON, 8 vol. 8vo.

Travels through Switzerland, Italy, Sicily and the Greek Islands to Constantinople, by THOMAS WATKINS.

Travels in the Ottoman Empire, by G. A. OLIVIER, 2 vol. 4to.

Travels of ANACHARSIS the Younger, in Greece, 7 vol. 8vo.

Universal Geography, by JOHN PAYNE, 2 vol. 4to.

Universal Library of Historians, by ELLIS du PIN, 2 vol. 8vo.

Universal History, Ancient and Modern, by WM. MAVOR, 25 vol. 12mo.

Voyages du Professor Pallas, dans plusieurs Provinces de l'Empire de Russia, 8 vol. 8vo.

Voyage de Nearque, ou Journal de l'expedition dela FLOTE D'ALEXANDRE, 3 vol. 8vo.

WORCESTER'S Geographical Dictionary, 2 vol. 8vo.

THE

NAMES OF GENTLEMEN

TO WHOM I AM UNDER THE GREATEST OBLIGATIONS, FOR VERBAL INFORMATION, MANUSCRIPT JOURNALS, AND LETTERS, RELATIVE TO THE BLACK SEA, AND TURKEY.

COM. WILLIAM BAINBRIDGE, United States Navy.
REV. WILLIAM BENTLEY, of Salem.
ALEXIS EUSTAPHIEVE, Esq. Russian Consul, Boston.
COL. W. C. NICHOLAS, of Virginia.
C. W. GREEN, Esq. of Boston.
CAPT. J. ROPES, of Salem, Mass.
J. W. LANGDON, Esq. of Boston.
J. L. CATHCART, Esq. Late Consul of the United States at Cadiz.
CAPT. J. HOLMAN, of Salem, Mass.
GEORGE BARRELL, Esq. of Boston.

INTRODUCTION.

No cause has tended more to advance the prosperity and glory of the United States, than the enterprising genius of our merchants and navigators. They have extended their voyages to the most distant regions of the globe, and become successful competitors for the products of every clime. The great and enlightened principles upon which commerce has been cultivated in this country, and the liberal policy pursued by the government in its foreign relations, have produced the happiest effects. Those odious monopolies and impolitic restrictions, which have generally been deemed necessary by other nations, have not paralyzed the energies of our adventurous citizens. Little more than the third of a century has elapsed, since the close of the war for independence, and the commercial marine of the Republic is exceeded by that of only one kingdom.

The illustrious Dugald Stewart observes: it is a very remarkable circumstance with respest to those economical researches, which now engage so much of the attention both of statesmen and philosophers, that they are altogether of modern origin. There is scarcely any ancient writer on politics who has made mention of *trade;* nor was it ever considered an affair of state till the seventeenth century. The work of the celebrated John de Witt, entitled, "The true interest and political maxims of the Republic of Holland and West Friesland," is the earliest publication of any note, in which commerce is treated of as an object of national and political concern, in opposition to the partial interests of corporations and of monopolists. Locke was one of the first retired theorists who condescended to treat of *trade* as an object of liberal study.

The fiscal resources of the United States being almost exclusively dependent on commerce, it is of primary importance that every facility should be afforded for its extension and security. Thus far the avenues of trade have been explored without the direct assistance of the government: natural barriers have been surmounted, by that indefatigable industry, and ardent perseverance, which mark the American character; neither oceans, nor

the trackless wilderness have obstructed their efforts or abated their zeal; but those political impediments which prevent our mercantile fleets from navigating the Black Sea, and preclude them from participating with those of Europe, in the trade of the Ottoman empire, can only be removed by national intervention.

It is a singular fact in nautical history, that while all other commercial nations, since the prosperous days of the Phœnicians, have commenced their maritime career in the trade with Egypt, Syria, Asia Minor, Greece, and the coasts of the Euxine, this Republic should not have directed its attention to those portions of the globe, until the shores of every other country had been explored. It is only within nineteen years that Turkey even knew of our existence as a nation.

In the year 1800, William Bainbridge Esq.* was sent to Algiers, as commander of the frigate George Washington, with the annual tribute, which, by the then existing treaties, this government was bound to remit that regency. Soon after his arrival, the Dey demanded, that he should carry an ambassador to the Ottoman Porte, with the usual presents. Astonished at this extraordinary presumption in the

* The present gallant Commodore Bainbridge.

African tyrant, Captain Bainbridge, accompanied by Consul O'Brien, repeatedly waited upon him at the castle, and remonstrated in the strongest terms against such an arbitrary mandate; alleging, that it was an insult to his country, and a wanton violation of every principle of national law; that a compliance with it was revolting to his feelings as an American, and incompatible with the instructions under which he sailed. The reasons which were advanced by the indignant Captain, and the Consul, to induce a revocation of the order, had no effect on the haughty barbarian. Anchored close under the batteries of the city, escape was impracticable, and a positive refusal was threatened to be followed by a declaration of war. The loss of the frigate, and the subjugation of the officers and crew to slavery, were the least evils he apprehended. A valuable commerce covered the Mediterranean, and must have fallen a sacrifice to the piratical corsairs of Algiers, as there was not another public vessel in that sea, for its protection. National pride, and personal feelings were unavailing in a contest with a government, whose fundamental rule of action, is the illimitable exercise of its physical strength. In a communication to the Navy Department detailing the particulars of this outrage, Captain Bainbridge patriotically ex-

claims, "I hope I shall never be again sent to the coasts of Barbary with a tribute, except from the mouths of my cannon."

The George Washington left Algiers on the nineteenth of October, and arrived at Constantinople about the middle of November. Captain Bainbridge was received with every mark of attention by the officers of the Porte, when it was ascertained to what nation the frigate belonged; for so ignorant were they of this country, that the officer who had first boarded and reported the frigate, returned and informed the Captain, that such a nation as the United States of America, had never before been heard of, and that he was directed to inquire, whether it was not, what was called the '*New World;*" being answered in the affirmative, assurances were soon after sent from the Seraglio, that he was cordially welcome, and would be treated with the utmost respect; the messenger also observed, that he was commanded to state to Captain Bainbridge, that the Grand Seignior had "particularly noticed the *stars* in the flag of the United States, which he considered as a good omen of the future friendly intercourse, which would exist between the two governments, for that of Turkey was charged with one of the heavenly bodies, and he therefore concluded there must be some analogy

between the laws, religion, habits, and manners of the Americans and Mussulmans."

This unexpected arrival of an American frigate at Constantinople, caused considerable sensation, not only among the Turks, but also throughout the whole diplomatic corps stationed at Pera; and the different European ambassadors strove, who should receive the Commander in their palaces; and all of them appeared emulous to render their services acceptable.

In about ten days after the George Washington anchored in the Thracian Bosporus, the Capudan Pacha, who is the minister of Marine, and the Admiral in chief of the Ottoman navy, arrived from the coast of Egypt, with fifteen sail of the line, and a number of smaller vessels. The next morning he sent his secretary on board the frigate, with a request, that the Commander would wait upon him at his palace. Captain Bainbridge was received by the Capudan Pacha in the most friendly manner, who voluntarily took the frigate under his immediate *protection*, and became personally responsible to the Sultan, for the good conduct of the officers and crew, which is considered by the Turks the greatest honour that can be conferred on a foreigner.

While Captain Bainbridge remained at the Porte he became acquainted with that distinguished traveller, Edward D. Clarke, Esq. whom he invited to accompany him, in his barge, in an excursion up the Bosporus, to the Black Sea, where he had the honour of displaying, for the first time, the flag of the United States.

Much solicitude was evinced by the officers of the Ottoman Porte, that an ambassador should be sent from the United States to Constantinople. The Capudan Pacha never failed to introduce the subject at every interview with Captain Bainbridge. The private secretary of the Capudan Pacha had resided in Paris, during the American revolution, and became acquainted with Doctor Franklin, and many other distinguished Americans, from whom he had acquired a general knowledge of our country, and no doubt communicated his information to the Turkish Admiral.

A few days previous to the departure of Captain Bainbridge, he transmitted to the Secretary of the navy, the following account of a conversation which he had with the Capudan Pacha, in relation to the negociation of a treaty.

"On the twenty third of December, I was requested by the Capudan Pacha to wait upon him at his palace. I was received in a very friendly

manner, and had considerable conversation respecting the negociation of a treaty with the Ottoman Porte. He expressed a very great desire that an ambassador should be sent from the United States to effect it. I informed him there was one already named, who at present was in Lisbon, and probably would be here in six months. He said he would write to the ambassador, which letter would be a passport for him in the Turkish empire; and gave me the liberty of recommending any merchant vessel to his *protection*, which might wish to come here, previous to the arrival of the ambassador. I thanked him in the name of the United States for the *protection* he had been pleased to give the frigate under my command, and his friendly attention to myself and officers. I conceive it a most favourable moment to negociate a very advantageous treaty with this government. I have entered the channel and find it clear of difficulties, but, not having orders, cannot proceed."

On the twenty seventh of December, he again waited on the Capudan Pacha, and received a letter for the Hon. William Smith, minister Plenipotentiary of the United States at the court of Portugal. He also gave the Captain a *firman* or passport for the frigate.

In consequence of the convulsed state of Europe at that time, the idea of sending Mr. Smith from Lisbon to Constantinople was abandoned by the President.*

The first commercial effort of the citizens of the United States to pass the Dardanelles, was made in the year 1810. During the month of September, the brig Telemachus, belonging to the Messrs. Crowninshields, of Salem; in November a schooner from Baltimore; and in December the Calumet of Boston, owned by Jonathan Harris, Esq. and the ship America, owned by the first named firm, arrived at Constantinople. The two latter were destined for the Russian port of Odessa, on the Black Sea; but in consequence of the influence of Mr. Adair, the British Ambassador at the Porte, they were refused permission to proceed, and orders were immediately issued, by the Turkish government, to suffer no more American vessels to pass the Dardanelles.

After being compelled to unlade all their cargoes, pay double the amount of duties exacted from the British, and encountering many difficulties, Charles W. Greene, Esq. supercargo of the Calumet, ultimately succeeded in gaining permission for that ship to enter the Black Sea. The moment it was made known to Mr. Adair, that the ship had

* John Adams, Esq.

sailed, he induced the Turkish government to dispatch a sloop of war to compel her to return; the Calumet however escaped, and reached Odessa in three days. The Duke de Richelieu, Governor of the province, received Mr. Greene with great cordiality, and observed, that he was astonished, but highly pleased, to behold the flag of the United States in "*his port.*" Every civility was extended to the Americans by the governor, the Russian officers, and the inhabitants of the city.

While Mr. Greene remained at Odessa, the governor repeatedly assured him that the emperor was extremely desirous, that the merchants of the United States should open a trade with his ports on the Euxine, and that no exertions should be wanting on his part, to effect an object of such vast importance to both countries. He gave Mr. Greene a letter for the Russian Minister in Washington, urging him to impress on this government the advantages which the United States would derive from the commerce of the Black Sea. On the return of the Calumet to Constantinople, Mr. Canning, who had succeeded Mr. Adair as ambassador, ascertaining that Mr. Greene had dispatches from the Duke de Richelieu, made a demand on him for them, with which he was *obliged* to comply.

Notwithstanding the numerous difficulties which the Americans had to encounter at Constantinople, they did not arise from any hostility on the part of the Ottoman Porte towards this country, but from the want of an ambassador to *protect* them against the intrigues of the representatives of Great Britain, who were unwilling that their commercial rivals should participate in the lucrative trade of the Euxine and Turkey.

While the Calumet and America remained at Constantinople, Mr. Greene and Capt. Ropes had frequent audiences of the Capudan Pacha, and the chief of the customs, who invariably expatiated on the advantages of a commercial treaty between Turkey and this country, and intimated in the most unequivocal manner, that it was much desired by the Grand Seignior.

In consequence of the wars on the continent, and between Great Britain and the United States, the attention of the government has been deflected from this subject; and the disastrous result of the first experiment has deterred our merchants from again attempting to pass the Hellespont and Bosporus, until they are placed on an equality with those of every European nation, by the mediation of the government.

The Black Sea, the dominions of Turkey without the Thracian Bosporus, and Egypt, present a sea coast of more than eight thousand miles in extent, on which are seated upwards of two hundred commercial cities and towns, with which, save Smyrna, we have no intercourse. This large and productive field of commerce has attracted the attention, and excited the emulation of the maritime world, from the earliest ages of antiquity; but at no period of its history has the trade of the Euxine been more flourishing and productive, than for the last four years. All the articles of merchandise usually obtained in the Baltic, with many others, can be procured in the Russian emporiums on the Black Sea, and at a cheaper rate. The distance to Odessa is nearly the same from the United States, as to St. Petersburg, and the navigation much less dangerous; and while the Russian ports of the Baltic are generally open only five months in the year, being obstructed by ice, from the last of September to the latter part of April, or first of May, voyages can be made to Odessa every month.

Besides the advantages resulting from a direct intercourse with the ports in the Black Sea, Turkey and Egypt, the carrying trade would become extremely valuable. This is now chiefly in the

hands of the Greeks, Turks, Austrians, and the States bordering on the Mediterranean; but from the superiority of American ships and navigators, they could not fail to command the preference, and secure the best freights.

All the commercial nations of Europe have deemed it important to secure to their subjects, a portion of the trade of Turkey, and the right of passing the gates of the Euxine; and besides maintaining ambassadors at Constantinople, have consular establishments in most of the principal marts in Greece, Asia Minor, Syria, Egypt, the islands of the Archipelago, Cyprus, Candia, and on the coasts of the Black Sea. Since the brilliant reign of Queen Elizabeth, Great Britain has never lost sight of the lucrative commerce of the Levant, which has constantly poured its riches into the coffers of that kingdom.

France early discovered the resources of the East, and no exertion or expense has been spared, to render them tributary to her prosperity. The sovereigns of that nation have taken effectual means to possess the best geographical, statistical and hydrographical information, in relation to those celebrated regions. The services of their most intelligent statesmen, civil and military engineers, naturalists, and antiquarians, have been required

to collect and transmit such details, as were calculated to subserve the interests of agriculture, manufactures, and trade; illumine the paths of science and the arts; and expand the bounds of literature: not only the southern territories of France, but those of the whole kingdom, have enjoyed the great benefits, resulting from such an enlightened policy.

Even the minor states of the north, and the princes of Italy, have not failed to secure by treaties with the Sublime Porte, the freedom of the Black Sea; while this powerful republick has strangely overlooked those waters, as a sort of blank on the map, and does not seem to have been thoroughly aware of the importance of access, to the very heart of the civilized portion of the eastern continent, afforded by that inlet. But this is not to be ascribed to a wanton neglect of duty, in the constitutional guardians of the Union, or an indifference for the mercantile interest. The advantages of preliminary information, in the intercourse with foreign countries, whether for the purposes of peace or war, and the necessity of first opening the channels of commerce by negociation, has been but recently experienced. Hitherto the rapid increase of our merchant ships, and the ample range of their adventurous expeditions, have far exceed-

ed the sanguine anticipations of the patriot and statesman. In the career of navigation, the Americans have outstripped every competitor, and instead of calling on the nation to pioneer, and guard their devious routes, have left it to admire their ardour, and rejoice at their success: but the period has now arrived when the co-operation of the government is required, to enable them to prosecute a trade, which holds out such alluring incitements to commercial activity, and nautical emulation. Such a co-operation could not be claimed at a more auspicious moment. The character of the nation has acquired an elevation that demands respect. The sovereigns of Europe having ceased from war, appear ambitious to cultivate the more honourable arts of peace, and all of them evince a sincere disposition, to maintain a friendly intercourse with the United States. A diplomatic mission to the Ottoman Porte would not now be regarded with jealousy, or excite animosity, whatever might have been the effect of such a measure at some former period.

HISTORY

OF THE

COMMERCE OF THE BLACK SEA.

THE

HISTORY

OF THE

Commerce of the Black Sea.

THE Black Sea was called the Euxine and the Pontus Euxinus by the ancients. It is situated between Europe and Asia, and connected with the Mediterranean by the Bosporus of Thrace, the sea of Marmora, the Hellespont and Archipelago. This sea is divided into the Euxine proper, computed to be nine hundred and thirty-two miles long, and one hundred and twenty-six miles in the narrowest part; and the Palus Mæotis, now the sea of Azof, which is about two hundred and ten miles in length and from forty to sixty in breadth. The sea of Azof is united to the Black Sea by the Cimmerian Bosporus. By comparing the accounts of these seas, as given by the ancient authors, with the limits assigned to them by recent

observations, it appears unquestionable, that they have sustained a most singular diminution, in consequence of some great convulsion.

The north and west coasts seem to have undergone very remarkable changes. The line of its present width has undoubtedly varied, and the immense volume of water which is rolled from Asia and Europe into this capacious reservoir, has completely changed the outline of its coast and filled up the deep gulfs which indented its shores. Various theories have been advanced on this subject, by geologists and antiquarians, founded on the geographical fragments of the earliest writers and the present appearance of that part of the globe. Buffon, Tournefort, De Sales, Pallas, Bergman, and Clark, have adduced numerous facts in support of the hypothesis, that the Mediterranean, Euxine, Hyrcanian or Caspian, and Aral seas were at one time immense lakes, and that the three latter at some distant period overflowed the great plains of Scythia, and formed one prodigious sheet of water, before the opening of the Bosporus of Thrace.

De Sales, the learned author of the Histoire Philosophique du Monde Primitif, is of opinion, that the Caspian sea not only communicated with the Euxine, but also with the Persian Gulf, the Baltic and the Frozen Ocean ; that the Black sea was united to the Adriatic by a strait which commenced at the mouth of the Danube, as well as by the present channel ; and that the Mediterranean mingled its waves with those of the Red Sea.

The large quarry of lime stone, in the neighbourhood of Odessa, exhibits throughout the entire mass, the appearance of small cockle-shells, all exactly of the same size, and perfect in their forms. The stratum is of considerable thickness and lies much higher than the present level of the Black Sea. It is common all along the north western coast. Similar appearances have been traced the whole way from the Black Sea towards the north, as far as the forty-eighth line of latitude, and over all Asiatic Tartary. The cliffs and hills at the mouth of the Bosporus of Thrace, are composed of enormous pebbles, which appear to have undergone the action of fire, and afterwards to have been rounded by long contact in water. On the points of the European light-house, there are immense rocks of hard and compact lava; and the rock of which the Cyanean Isles consist, appears to have been cemented during the boiling of a volcano. On the Asiatic side of the strait, a little to the east of the Anatolian light-house, there is a range of basaltic pillars, exhibiting very regular prismatic forms. From the consideration of all these observations it is more than a conjectural position, that the level of the waters, which appear at intervals between the fortieth and eightieth parallels of French longitude, was not always what it is now: and that the period of its incipient fall may be traced to an era subsequent to that of the deluge in the time of Noah, seems evident, not only from history, but also by a reference to existing natural phenomena.

At the bursting of the Thracian Bosporus, whether in consequence of a volcano, whose vestiges are yet visible, an earthquake, or the immense pressure caused by an accumulated ocean against the mound there presented, the exuberant waters rolling their torrent with irresistible impetuosity into the Mediterranean, the whole of Greece, the greater part of Asia Minor, Thrace, Egypt and Lybia experienced an inundation, the memory of which was preserved by the inhabitants of Samothrace, so late as the time of Diodorus Siculus; and its effects are still discernible in the form of all the islands in the south of the Archipelago, which slope towards the north, and are precipitous upon their southern shores.

The Black Sea is bounded on the north by the Russian Governments of Taurida and Georgia, east and south by Amasia and Anatolia, and west by the Turkish provinces of Rumelia and Bulgaria, and the Russian territories of Bessarabia and Cherson. The European coast of the Euxine, from the Bosporus of Thrace to the Danube, was called Thrace by the ancients, and became the theatre of numerous sanguinary wars between the Persians, Greeks, Romans and the Barbarians of the north.

The different tribes which occupied the country lying between the Baltic and the frontiers of China and north of the Danube, mount Caucasus, the Caspian and Indian seas, as far as the regions of the Hyperboreans, went under the general denomination of Scythians. This vast territory was di-

vided into Scythia in Europe, and Scythia in Asia, in which were included the two Sarmatias or Sauromatias, which lay between and separated the two Scythias from each other.

Sarmatia was also distinguished into European and Asiatic, divided by the river Tanais, Palus Mæotis, and Cimmerian Bosporus.

The Asiatic Scythia comprehended Great Tartary and Russia in Asia. That part of it which lay beyond mount Imaus contained the regions of Rogdoi or Ostiacoi and Tunguri. The Scythia within, or on this side of mount Imaus, comprehended Turkestan and Mongul, the Ubeck or Zagatai, Kalmuc and Nogaian Tartars, Siberia, the land of the Samoiedes and Nova Zembla.

Sarmatia in Asia was separated from Asiatic Scythia by the river Rha, or Volga, which falls into the Caspian Sea, and was bounded on the south by the Caucasian mountains.

The seas of Asiatic Scythia were the Caspian, Euxine and the Palus Mæotis, besides the Frozen and Indian oceans. The rivers were the Rhymnus, the Daix, the Tanais, the Rha, the Oby, the Lena, the Amur and the Helum; to which may be added the Jaxartes, Oxus and Araxes which discharged themselves into the Caspian sea. The most noted mountains were the Taurus, Imaus and Caucasus.

European Scythia contained European Russia and the lesser Crim Tartary eastward; and on the west Lithuania, Poland, part of Hungary, Transylvania, Walachia, Bulgaria and Moldavia.

This Scythia had no other seas than the Sarmatian, or Mare Scythicum, now called the Baltic, with the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, and the White sea, joining to the Northern ocean; if we except the Euxine and Palus Mæotis, which bounded it on the south. The principal rivers were the Donetz, or little Tanais, which unites with the Don, the Borysthenes or Dnieper, the Bog, the Tyras or Dneister, and the Ister or Danube, which discharged themselves into the Euxine; and on the north east, the great and little Dwina, which run, the first into the White sea and the other into the gulf of Finland; on the west the Vistula, which flowed into the Scythian sea and divided European Sarmatia from Germany.

The original Scythians of Herodotus were confined within the Danube the sea of Azof and river Don, exclusive of the Crimea, which was then called Tauris, and formerly, was occupied by the Cimmerians, who had possessed the country lying west of the sea of Azof, as far as the Borysthenes and the peninsula formed by the Palus Mæotis and the Euxine, on the eastern side of the Cimmerian Bosporus.

The Cimmerii, according to some of the ancient authors, were formerly called the Cimbri, and that they did not acquire the second appellation before they inhabited the town of "*Cimmeriana*," built in Asia, upon the bank of the strait, which separates it from the Tauride. Some learned men are of opinion that they were the descendants of the Gomer of Scripture, and others that they were of the

race of the Thracians. The time of the establishment of the Cimmerians must have been very ancient, for it appears they had gained celebrity in the ninth century before the christian era, as Homer mentions them in his Odyssey as a people who inhabited the northern and north western parts of Greece, in a climate approaching the pole. The country bordering on the sea of Azof and Bosporus, which was inhabited by the Cimmerii is represented by the ancients as inhospitable and covered with forests and fogs, which the sun could not penetrate; and their frightful descriptions of it induced Cicero and Ovid to say that an eternal night reigned in that gloomy climate, and that sleep had taken up its abode there. Hence "Cimmerian darkness" became proverbial, signifying an impenetrable darkness, and a gloomy and stupid mind.

Herodotus observes that when the Cimmerians were expelled their country by the Scythians, they fled to the Asiatic Chersonese, where the Greek city of Sinope was situated, at the period he wrote.

At the time of the Scythian invasion the Cimmerians consisted of three divisions;—those of Asia Minor, the colony of Chersonesus, or the Crimea and the principal body of the nation, which inhabited the regions situated between the Danube and the Borysthenes, the most considerable establishments of which, were formed on the bank of the river Tyras or Dniester; Alyattes attacked those of Asia Minor and destroyed most of them, and such as escaped the sword were made slaves and dispersed through Lydia and Mysia. The Cimme-

rians of Chersonesus and Bosporus, finding it difficult to defend themselves against the Scythians, abandoned the plains and their cities on this strait, and retired into the mountains.

The principal body, who inhabited the country between the Danube and Borysthenes, were conquered and the Scythians continued masters of their country, until five hundred years before Christ. After their flight, the different people which formed the Cimmerian league separated and settling in different places, either formed distinct states, or mingled with other nations whereby the name of Cimmerian became extinct.

They retained the Crimea longer than any of their extensive possessions, which were ravished from them by the Scythians. Having established strong posts in the mountains, they were called Taurians or mountaineers. From these hardy and valiant defenders of their country, the whole peninsula afterwards obtained the name of Taurica.

The Scythians having been almost exterminated by the Sarmatians, the Taurians were enabled to leave their fastnesses in the mountains, ravaged the estates of the rising Grecian monarchy, and extended their dominion over nearly the whole peninsula.

The Sarmatians were considered the offspring of the Scythians and Amazons. Those warlike females in their flight from the Grecians, having landed near the precipices of the Palus Mæotis, belonging to the free Scythians, and having been persuaded to be married to them, did, in their turn,

prevail upon them, to leave that part of Scythia, where they could not conveniently live, and to pass into the country on the opposite side of the Tanais.

The Taurians having lived for a long period chiefly by war and rapine, became extremely ferocious and cruel. They had an inhuman custom of sacrificing to a virgin all persons that were shipwrecked, and all the Grecians that they caught on the coast. This bloody offering was performed by knocking the unfortunate victim on the head with a club, after many dire imprecations, and then flinging the carcase down the precipice, on which their temple was built.

From the Cuban to the Canal of Constantinople, the coast has been inhabited by the Circassians, Iberians, Georgians, Mingrelians, Colchians, Armenians, various colonies of Persians, Grecians, Romans, Turks and other nations; but, except in Colchis and on part of the coast of Anatolia, those barbarians of antiquity have retained their primitive habits and manners, and are now but little advanced in civilization.

The periplus of the Oriental Hercules, of the primitive world, may be considered the first nautical enterprize ever undertaken, and was many centuries anteriour to that of the Grecian Hercules, or Jason. He is represented as having sailed from Caucasus, when those mountainous regions, which separate the Euxine and Caspian Seas, were an island, surrounded by an ocean, which covered a large portion of Europe, Asia and Africa; but the event is so involved in the mythological fables of

antiquity, as to render it impossible to ascertain the extent of his voyage, or the precise period when it was performed.

Theseus, a celebrated hero in the fabulous history of Greece, is said to have sailed with a fleet into the Euxine sea to wage war with the Amazons, whom he conquered on the banks of the Thermodon, and received Antiope their queen as the reward of his valour; and to have founded a city in their country, near a river, which he called Soloon: but the expedition of the Argonauts to Colchis is the earliest attempt in navigation and commerce, on the Euxine, of which the ancients have transmitted to us any thing like an authentic account.

Sesostris king of Egypt, who reigned during the fifteenth century before the christian era, after having conquered all Asia, passed round the eastern coast of the Black Sea, into Europe, and subdued the countries of the Scythians and Thracians as far as the Ister. This distinguished conqueror was supposed by Sir Isaac Newton to be the Osiris of the Egyptians and the Bacchus of the Greeks, as well as the Sesac, or Sheshac, of the Hebrew scriptures.

On the return of Sesostris, he left a detachment of his army in Colchis, on the banks of the river Rione, the ancient Phasis, which rises in Georgia, and forming the southern boundary of Mingrelia, empties into the eastern end of the Black Sea. Whether these troops were left there from sickness, to establish a colony, guard the passes, or, fatigued with their laborious services, they remained of their

own accord, is undecided by the historians. The most celebrated agree with Herodotus, who was satisfied that the Colchians were of Egyptian origin, before he had interrogated the people of both countries on the subject. But he found that the Colchians had a better remembrance of the Egyptians, than the Egyptians had of the Colchians, which is perfectly natural, and is the case with all colonies.

The Egyptians were of opinion, that the Colchians were descended from that part of the troops of Sesostris left on the banks of the Phasis, in which Herodotus coincided, because they were black and had short curling hair like the Egyptians,* that the inhabitants of Colchis, Egypt and Ethiopia were the only people who from time immemorial had used circumcision, as the Phenicians and the Syrians of Palestine† acknowledged ; that they borrowed this custom from Egypt ; that their manufacture of linen was alike, and peculiar to those two nations ; and that they had similar manners, and spoke the same language.

Colchis, now called Mingrelia, was bounded on the east by Iberia and Caucasus, on the west by the Euxine sea, on the south by Armenia and part of Pontus, and on the north by Mount Caucasus, dividing it from Sarmatia Asiatica.

The most noted cities of this country were Pityas, Dioscurias, Aca, Saracæ, Zudris, Surium,

* From this observation of Herodotus Volney remarks "that the Egyptians were real negroes, of the same species with all the nations of Africa, and that they still retain strong marks of their original conformation."

† The Jews.

Madia and Zalissa. It was watered by many rivers, as the Corax, Hippus, Cyaneus, Charistus, Phasis, Absarus, Cissa and Ophis.

The Colchians cultivated the soil, and following the customs of their ancestors, enriched their country with many useful arts, and made considerable advances in science. For many years they were the only civilized people on the borders of the Euxine. But separated from Greece, Phenicia and Egypt, by numerous tribes of barbarians, all intercourse was cut off with those countries which had any pretensions to refinement, and we have but little information respecting this celebrated nation, until after the Argonautic expedition.

This maritime adventure is one of the most remarkable transactions of antiquity. The mystery of the golden fleece is variously explained by poets and historians, many of whom were of opinion, that it alluded to the profit of the wool trade to Colchis; and others to the gold that they gathered by setting fleeces of wool across the narrow passages of those torrents, which fell from the neighbourhood of Mount Caucasus and brought down with them great quantities of gold dust. By some of the Greek writers we are informed that the intention of this armament was to bring back a golden fleece of that ram, on which Phrixus and Helle fled to avoid the anger of Ino. Upon his arrival at Colchis, Phrixus sacrificed it to Mars, in whose temple it was suspended. This fable has been thus explained; Phrixus flying with his sister Helle from the rage of their step-mother Ino, the daughter of

Cadmus, went on board a ship, whose ensign was a golden ram, and sailed to Colchis. Helle was drowned on the way in that sea, which from her was called the Hellespont, now the Dardanelles. This it is said was the ground of the poetical fable, that a ram with a golden fleece swam away with them to Colchis; and that the Argonauts undertook their famous voyage in order to regain this fleece.

After an interval of some years, Pelias, King of Iolcus, commissioned Jason, son of his brother Æson, to go and recover this precious fleece. For this purpose a ship was built at Pagasæ, a city not far from Mount Pelion, in Thessaly. It was the first that was ever attempted; and the merit of the performance is ascribed to Argus, who was instructed by Minerva. This ship, called Argo, was built partly of sacred timbers from the grove of Dodona.

As soon as this vessel was completed, a select band of heroes, the prime of their age and country, consulted together, and engaged in this honourable enterprise. Among these, Jason was the chief, by whom the others were summoned and collected. Chiron, or as others say, Musæus, framed for their use a delineation of the heavens, and constructed the first sphere, on which the stars were formed into asterisms, for the benefit of the Argonauts, that they might be the better able to conduct themselves, in their perilous voyage.

The heroes being all assembled, waited for the rising of the Pleiades, at which season they set

sail. The general account of their route is, that they coasted Macedonia and proceeded to Thrace They visited Lemnos and Cyzicus, and from thence proceeded to the Bosporus. After many adventures, they crossed the Euxine and arrived at the mouth of the river Phasis. Immediately addressing Ætes, and informing him of the cause of their visit, they demanded a restitution of the fleece. The King was exasperated and refused to give up the object in view, unless Jason encountered with Bulls that had brazen feet, and breathed fire out of their nostrils; overcame a dragon that was stationed to guard the fleece; sowed its teeth and destroyed the soldiers that would spring up from the ground, where they were scattered. Although these terms seemed impracticable, Jason accepted of the conditions. Medea the King's daughter falling in love with him, taught him to overcome all these difficulties and assisted in soothing the sleepless dragon, by which he was enabled to get possession of the golden fleece, with which he retired privately to his ship and immediately set sail, at the same time bringing away the enamoured princess.

As soon as Ætes was apprized of their flight, he fitted out some ships to pursue them, which arriving at the Thracian Bosporus took possession of that pass. The Argonauts having their retreat prevented, returned by another route, which writers have differently represented. Some of them make the Argonauts proceed up the Ister through Europe to the Cronian sea or Baltic; then to the Atlantic, and afterwards by the Mediterranean: in

one account their route is traced to the fountains of the Tanais, through the Palus Mæotis; thence through Scythia and Sarmatia to the Cronian sea; and from thence by the Atlantic and Mediterranean to Greece: others state that they passed over the continent of Asia, to the Indian Ocean; and thence proceeded to the Nile in Egypt, whence they made their progress regularly home: but it is affirmed with more probability that they returned the same way they went; for if the Argo was the first model of a vessel which the king of Colchis had seen, he could not so soon have built a fleet, found navigators, and sent it across the Black Sea.

Although the epoch and object of this expedition has been variously stated, and the accounts of it intermixed with many poetical fables, the reality of the voyage has been generally admitted, both by ancient and modern writers. Notwithstanding the discrepancy and the numerous fictions that disfigure the story of the Argonauts, their undertaking appears to have been attended with a considerable and a happy effect on the manners and character of the Greeks. From the era of this celebrated adventure, we may discover not only a more daring and more enlarged spirit of enterprise, but a more decisive and rapid march towards civilization and humanity; and a taste for the arts and sciences, which has ever marked the progress of commerce, in all ages of the world.

The Argonautic expedition is one of the greatest epochas of history, which Sir Isaac Newton endeavours to settle, and from thence to rectify the ancient chronology.

This he shews, by several authorities and astronomical calculations, to have been about thirty years earlier than the taking of Troy, forty three years later than the death of Solomon, and nine hundred and thirty-seven years before the birth of Christ. Other chronologers refer this expedition to the year 1263 before Christ.

During the period of the commercial prosperity of Phœnicia, her trade was extended to all parts of the Mediterranean, the Euxine and Palus Mæotis; where her enterprising merchants had settlements and correspondents; but their principal intercourse was with Colchis, which carried on for many centuries an extensive commerce, not only with the Phœnicians, but with Egypt, and other nations, situated without the straits of Thrace.

The whole kingdom abounded with fruit of every kind, and with every material that was fit for navigation. The Colchians had plenty of timber and pitch, and many rivers for its conveyance to the sea; raised abundance of flax and hemp, and their linen manufactures were in high repute, and greatly sought after, particularly by the Egyptians. Some of it was curiously painted with figures of animals and flowers, afterwards dyed, like the linen of the Indians, and the whole was so deeply tinctured, that no washing could efface

the colours. The adventurous disposition of the Colchians led them to establish many colonies, so that the coast of the Euxine was in many places peopled by them. One of their chief colonies seems to have been that of the Amazons. Colchis besides its other productions was enriched with many mines of gold.

Cyrus the famous founder of the Persian monarchy, who after taking Babylon, restoring the Jews to their country and subjugating the greater part of Asia, planned an expedition against the Scythians, towards the close of the sixth century before Christ. He crossed the river Araxes which empties into the Caspian sea, but soon after lost his life in a battle with the army of Tomyris queen of the Massagetæ.*

Early in the fifth century before Christ, Darius king of Persia, called in the scriptures Darius the Median, engaged in an expedition against the Scythians. He marched with a vast army from Susa to the Thracian Bosporus, which he crossed on a bridge of boats, constructed by Mandrocles the Samian.

A fleet was sent from Chalcedon, situated opposite Byzantium, across the Euxine, to the Ister, with a detachment of troops and numerous artificers, where having erected a bridge they were

* According to Xenophon, he died quietly in his bed, and was buried at Pasagarda, and his monument was to be seen in the time of Alexander the Great; but Dr. Prideaux, Rollin and the writers of the Universal History, give full credit to Herodotus, who alleges he was slain in the manner above stated.

to wait the arrival of the main army, which was to proceed to that point by land. Miltiades, the distinguished Athenian general, was one of the commanders of this fleet, and who afterwards defeated the army of Darius on the plains of Marathon.

Having reduced Thrace, Darius advanced to the Ister, which he passed on the bridge that had been directed to be built by the forces sent in the fleet, and entered Scythia. After various conflicts and losing a large portion of his army, he was enabled to reach the banks of the Oaros,* but at last was obliged to retrace his steps, without having gained any material advantages, by this expensive and disastrous campaign.

The fleet of Darius which was furnished by the Ionians, Æolians, the inhabitants of the Hellespont and Archipelago, is the first naval expedition of which we have any well authenticated account, that sailed upon the Euxine, after the decline of the maritime greatness of Colchis.

Herodotus observes that they "had assembled a fleet and having passed the Cyanian islands," reputed by the ancients as most dangerous, "*they sailed directly to the Ister*," where they "arrived, after a passage of two days."

From these facts it is naturally to be inferred, that they were expert seamen, and well acquainted with the coasts of the Euxine, or they could not have taken their departure, "*directly*" for "*the Ister*."

* Now called the Volga or Wolga.

Darius left a large detachment of his army, on the European side of the Bosporus, under the command of Megabyzus, his favourite and most distinguished officer.

After the decline of the commerce of Phœnicia and Egypt, the Greeks became the principal navigators of the Euxine, and engrossed most of the trade upon its borders.

All the states of Greece, and more particularly the Athenians, carried on considerable commerce with the inhabitants on the coast of the Euxine and Palus Mæotis.

The greatest quantity of wheat imported into that republic was brought from Panticapæum* and Theodosia,† cities of the Taurica Chersonesus, the modern Crimea, because Lucon, the sovereign of that country and the master of the Cimmerian Bosporus,‡ exempted the Athenian vessels from paying the usual duties levied on exports and imports: in gratitude for which, the republic enrolled this generous prince and his children, in the number of her citizens.

That the privileges mutually granted to each other by Lucon and the Athenians, might be known to all persons engaged in commerce, they were engraven on three columns; the first of which was placed in the Piræus;◊ the second at the Bosporus of Thrace; and the third at the Cimmerian Bosporus; that is, at the beginning, in the middle and

* Now called Kertchy. † Caffa.

‡ Straits of Tamen or Yenikale.

◊ The principal port of Athens was called the Pyræus

at the termination of the course pursued by the trading vessels.

From Panticapæum and Theodosia, Athens received annually four hundred thousand medimni* of corn.

They also imported from those ports, and the different coasts of the Euxine and Palus Mæotis, timber for building, slaves, salt, honey, wax, wool, leather, goat-skins, salt-fish, and a great variety of furs.

They exported the wines of the islands in the Ægean sea, the coast of the Hellespont and Propontis; swords, arms of different kinds, cloths, the earthen ware and celebrated merchandise of Athens and Corinth, which were then not less esteemed in all parts of the world for their elegance and beauty, than those of Paris and London are at this period. This trade was a source of great wealth to Athens.

While Xerxes was at Abydos, with his millions of warriors, constructing a bridge to cross the Hellespont, for his disastrous invasion of Greece, a number of vessels passed, laden with wheat from the Euxine, bound to Ægina and the Peloponnesus. His naval attendants discovering that they were Greeks, requested permission to pursue them; but Xerxes being informed they were bound to the enemy with cargoes of corn, proudly replied: "Well and are not we going to the same place? How therefore can they injure us, who are carrying provisions for our use?"

* The medimnus is equal to 1·27 English bushel.

Athens was supplied with wheat, which came from the Borysthenes during the time of Demosthenes.*

The fleets of Greece often visited the Black Sea under her most distinguished Admirals. The Persian cities of Chalcedon and Byzantium, which commanded the entrance of the Thracian Bosporus, were captured by Alcibiades, 407 years before the birth of Christ, and made tributary to Athens.

The regions of Taurida, Tamen and the Borysthenes became the emporium of that ambitious republic, and continued to supply her with the principle of her existence, as a maritime power, until the commerce of the Euxine passed with the liberties of Greece, into the hands of the Romans. Her trade in the Euxine not only enriched, but supported her inhabitants. It became the nursery of her seamen, and was of the utmost importance, in the demand it occasioned for her own manufactures. A very principal part of this intercourse was confined to the Cimmerian Bosporus, whose kings and princes received the highest marks of Athenian regard. The Milesian settlements were established on various parts of the coast of the Euxine, as far as the mouth of the Tanais; and it it perhaps to those early colonies of Greece, that we may attribute most of the surprising sepulchral monuments found on either side the Cimmerian Bosporus. The Grecians erected a number of cities upon all the shores of the sea, the magnificent remains of which still exist.

* Demosthenes died 322 years before the Christian era.

About the middle of the fifth century before Christ, Pericles, the distinguished Athenian military and naval commander, and one of the most illustrious statesmen of antiquity, having sailed to Pontus with a large and well equipped fleet, procured for the Grecian cities there all the advantages which they desired, and treated them with the highest regard. To the barbarous nations that surrounded them, and to their kings and princes, he exhibited the greatness of Athens, by showing with what security her fleets could sail, and that she was in effect mistress of the seas. He left the people of Sinope, a city of Paphlagonia, on the southern coast of the Euxine, thirteen ships under the command of Lamachus, and a body of men to act against Timesileos their tyrant. When the usurper and his party were driven out, he caused a decree to be made, that a colony of six hundred Athenian volunteers should be placed in Sinope, and put in possession of those houses and lands which had belonged to the oppressors.

That the commerce of the Grecian colonies on the Black Sea, was very considerable four hundred years before the birth of Christ, is evident from the number of transports which the cities on the Euxine coast of Asia Minor were able to furnish the "Ten thousand Greeks," in their memorable retreat from the banks of the Euphrates.

Cyrus, the second son of Darius, king of Persia, having engaged in a conspiracy against his elder brother Artaxerxes, after the death of his father, was apprehended, with a design to put him

to death; but his mother saved him by her intercessions, and the sentence was commuted into banishment to the provinces of Asia Minor, where he had been governor from the age of sixteen. Being, however, of a restless disposition, as well as cruel and ambitious, he raised an immense army under false pretences, but really with a view of attacking his brother. Sardis, the capital of Lydia, and formerly the residence of its kings, was the place of rendezvous; from hence he marched at the head of about twelve thousand Greeks and one hundred thousand barbarians, to dispute the crown of Persia with Artaxerxes. On the plains of Cunaxa, in the province of Babylon, he came in sight of the royal army. Cyrus was attended by Clearchus, who advised the prince to remain in the rear, but prudence and fear were not among his qualities; he posted himself in the van; and so great was his success, at the commencement of the battle, that he was saluted king by those around him. Rushing too far into danger, he was slain at the moment when victory appeared to be deciding the fate of the day. This battle is supposed to have been fought in the year 402 before the christian era. Soon after the battle, the Greeks, amounting to ten thousand, commenced their retreat, which is the most celebrated military achievement in the annals of history. After a long and tedious march, harassed by enemies in front and rear, they arrived at Trebisond, a Greek city upon the Euxine Sea; where they were received with great hospitality. After a

halt of thirty days, the sick, the women, children and baggage were put on board of transports, which sailed to Cotyora, a sea port west of Trebisond, whither the remainder of the army marched through the country. The cities of Sinope and Heraclea, with their dependencies, furnished a sufficient number of ships for the embarkment of the whole army at Cotyora. Proceeding along the coast, the fleet stopped at Sinope, remained five days in the harbour of Harmene and then sailed for Heraclea, where the soldiers held a council, to decide, whether they should proceed the rest of the way to the Hellespont by land, or by sea. Dissensions arose in consequence of the difficulty of procuring provisions; the generals were censured, and the Arcadians and Achaians, who constituted one half of the army, complained that one Athenian, who had brought no forces with him, should have the command both of the Peloponnesians and Lacedemonians. The Arcadians and Achaians who served under Cheirisophus and Xenophon, left those distinguished officers, joined the rest, and chose their own generals, to the number of ten. In consequence of these disturbances, the army was divided into three bodies. The first, consisted of the Arcadians and Achaians, being above four thousand five hundred heavy-armed men; the second, of fourteen hundred equipped in a similar manner, and seven hundred Thracian targeteers, belonging to Cheirisophus; and the third, of seventeen hundred heavy-armed men and three hundred targeteers, who followed Xeno-

phon; the horse which amounted to about forty, were solely commanded by him.

The Arcadians having furnished themselves with ships from the inhabitants of Heraclea, first set sail and landed in the port of Calpe, situated on the coast of Bithynia. Cheirisophus marched through the country, keeping near the sea. Xenophon procured transports and landed on the confines of Bithynia: from thence he advanced by land to Calpe, where the three divisions united and came to a resolution, that whosoever proposed dividing the army should be punished with death. Cheirisophus having died, Neon the Asinæon succeeded him. The surrounding country was plundered and laid waste with fire and sword by the Greeks, but the exasperated inhabitants, having at last concentrated an army, fought several battles, which were disastrous to their enemies, and compelled them to fortify their camp at Calpe. Cleander, the Lacedemonian governor of Byzantium, having been requested to furnish transports, visited the army with two gallies, and advised them to march through the country to the shores of the Bosporus, opposite Byzantium, and on their arrival in that city, promised to afford them all the assistance in his power. The plan of Cleander was adopted, and the army proceeded to Chrysopolis, a town of Chalcedonia, the site of which is now occupied by Scutari. Pharnabazus, fearing that the Greeks would make an irruption into the territory under his command, requested Anaxibius, the Lacedemonian admiral, who

was then at Byzantium, to convey them out of Asia. Anaxibius sent for the officers to wait upon him at Byzantium, and promised them, if the troops would cross over they should be paid. In the meantime Scuthes, the Thracian chief, sent messengers to the Grecian camp and solicited them to join his forces, and aid him in recovering his kingdom; but the alluring promises of pay from the admiral prevailed, and the army passed over to Byzantium.

The faithless Anaxibius having effected his object, refused to fulfil his engagements, and compelled the soldiers to leave the town. Indignant at such base conduct, and having no money to purchase provisions, the army became extremely exasperated, forced the gates, and took possession of the city, with a determination to plunder it. Such was the consternation produced by this bold and desperate achievement, that the inhabitants fled from the market place, and rushed to the citadel, or escaped on board the vessels in the harbour. Apprehensive of the consequences, if the soldiers were permitted to sack Byzantium, Xenophon had the address to assemble them in the Thracian Square, where he prevailed upon them to retire from the city, without committing any outrage. Soon after, Xenophon obtained permission from Cleander to return within the walls, and embarked on board Anaxibius' fleet for Greece. Neon, Phryniscus and Timasian, who remained, led the army into some villages of the Thracians, near Byzantium, where they encamped. Here

the generals disagreed; Cleander and Phryniscus being desirous to join Scuthes, Neon was for marching, into the Chersonesus and Timasian wished to pass into Asia, expecting by this means to return home, which was approved by the soldiers. Much time being spent in this contest, many of the soldiers sold their arms and took passage by water, others gave them to the country people and settled in the cities.

While Anaxibius was on his voyage, he met, at Cyzicus, Aristarchus, who had been sent to succeed Cleander as governor of Byzantium. He informed the admiral, that Polus was coming into the Hellespont, to succeed him in the command of the fleet. Anaxibius immediately sent Xenophon in a thirty-oar galley, across the Propontis, to muster the scattered soldiers of the army, lead them to Perinthus and transport them into Asia. He was received with great joy by the army, who followed him cheerfully, as they were anxious to leave Thrace. While Xenophon was engaged in procuring ships to transport the troops into Asia, Aristarchus arrived, with two gallies, and forbade the masters of the ships to receive them on board. The Greeks then entered into the service of Scuthes and performed a winter campaign against the enemies of that prince. The next spring the Lacedemonians engaged them to join their army in Asia, in a war against Tissaphernes and Pharnabazus. Crossing the Hellespont to Lampsacus, they marched through Troas, over Mount Ida, to the

city of Pergamus, where they joined the Grecian army, under the command of Thimbron.

The expedition and retreat of the Greeks was performed in fifteen months, during which period they marched 3305 miles.

Soon after Alexander succeeded to the throne of Macedon he marched into Thrace, defeated the Triballi, who inhabited the modern Bulgaria, and drove them beyond the Ister; he also made the Getæ to fly at his approach; but it is believed that his conquests, on the western coast of the Euxine, extended no farther north than the Ister. During his victorious marches in Asia, he did not approach the Black Sea, but passed in a more south-eastern direction to the Caspian, and frontiers of Scythia. There are some vague accounts of his having visited the banks of the Don.

The nations which surrounded the Black Sea having been successively conquered by the Persians, Grecians and Romans, the latter considerably extended the limits of ancient Byzantium, which gradually assumed the character of a commercial city.

The kingdom of Pontus which at one period embraced the present Russian and Turkish provinces of Colchis, Mingrelia, Armenia, Amasia and the greater part of Anotalia, became very formidable; and the sovereign Mithridates VII. was regarded as one of the most powerful princes that ever reigned in the east, having held it for forty years successively against the Romans, though their armies were commanded by Sylla, Lucullus and Pompey, the greatest generals ever produced by Rome.

Mithridates VI. King of Pontus entered into an alliance with the Romans and sent them a considerable supply of ships, in their third war with the Carthagenians. He proved a faithful ally to them in the war which they carried on against Aristoricus, who, upon the death of Attalus, laid claim to the kingdom of Pergamus.

After Mithridates VII. had been defeated by Pompey, he fled to Armenia, whence he withdrew to Colchis, and thence to Asiatic Scythia, where he collected a large army, subdued the Taurians, and made himself master of the whole peninsula, about seventy years before the birth of Christ.

In the pursuit of Mithridates, the Romans advanced to the banks of the Phasis, and their gallies ascended that river till they reached the camp of Pompey and his legions. But the senate, and afterwards the Emperors, disdained to reduce that distant conquest into the form of a province. The family of a Greek rhetorician was permitted to reign in Colchis and the adjacent kingdoms, from the time of Mark Anthony to that of Nero; and after the race of Polemo was extinct, the Eastern Pontus, which preserved his name, extended no farther than the neighbourhood of Trebisond. Beyond these limits the fortifications of Hyssus, of Apsarus, of the Phasis, of Dioscurias or Sebastopolis, and of Pityus were guarded by sufficient detachments of horse and foot; and six princes of Colchis received their diadems from the Lieutenants of Cæsar. One of these Lieutenants, the eloquent and philosophic Arrian, surveyed and

described the Euxine coast, under the reign of Adrian. Arrian was born in Bithynia, where he was priest of Proserpine. After his residence at Rome, by his talents and learning he recommended himself to the patronage of Adrian. Having been admitted to the honour of a Roman citizen, he was appointed prefect of Cappadocia. He was afterwards advanced to the dignity of senator and consul. Of the numerous historical writings of Arrian, if we except some fragments, two only remain. The first is the expedition of Alexander the Great. The "Periplus Ponti Euxini" in a letter to Adrian, containing a description of a voyage performed in the year 130 along the coasts of the Euxine sea, is still extant, and was probably written while Arrian was prefect of Cappadocia. The garrison which he reviewed, at the mouth of the Phasis, consisted of four hundred chosen legionaries; the brick walls and towers, the double ditch and the military engines, on the ramparts, rendered this place inaccessible to the barbarians. As the strength of the empire was gradually impaired, the Romans stationed on the Phasis were either withdrawn or expelled.

In the beginning of the christian era, the Allans compelled the Bosporian kings to pay them tribute, and drove the Taurians from their country. They maintained their power for one hundred and fifty years, and were succeeded by the Goths, during whose dominion christianity was first introduced into the Crimea, in the time of Dioclesian and Constantine. The Huns compelled the Goths to take

refuge in the mountains, where they had their own sovereigns; and towards the close of the fourth century, the kingdom of Bosporus was entirely extinct.

The Hungarians and Bulgarians having conquered all the country between the Don and the Dniester, entered the Crimea in the year 464. The descendants of the Hungarians took the name of Aoultziagrians, and led a wandering life, but were ultimately obliged to submit to the Khatyares or Khazanes, who also made the Goths, in the mountains and the Grecian towns on the coast, their tributaries. The Khazanes were a bold and powerful Turkish tribe, which first occupied the Isthmus of Caucasus. In the seventh century they began to be famous, and towards the middle of the ninth century, the empire of the Khazanes extended from the Volga and the Caspian, across the Caucasian Isthmus, the Crimea and what is now Southern Russia, as far as Moldavia and Walachia, and several Sclavonian tribes were tributary to them.

The trade of the Euxine was not of much consequence to Rome after she became mistress of that Sea, until the third century of the Christian era. That period was distinguished by her naval and military achievements rather than the advancement of agriculture, manufactures, commerce and the arts, among the inhabitants of the numerous kingdoms, which had been subjugated by her victorious legions. Those sanguinary wars, which for centuries had desolated the fairest portion of the globe, annihilated almost every vestige of that ma-

ritime enterprise, which once extended along the Southern and Eastern coast of the Euxine, to the Island of Tamen, and from Byzantium, on the shores of Thrace and Scythia, to the Tanais.

It was left for a Christian prince to render Byzantium the emporium of the world. Constantine the Great having planted his eagles on its ancient battlements, made it the capitol of the Roman Empire.

The Gothic frontiers, Thrace and Macedonia, constituted the part of a government, which was assigned to Dalmatius; and the provinces of Pontus, Cappadocia, and Lesser Armenia on the Southern coast of the Euxine, formed a kingdom, for Hannibalianus the second nephew of the Emperor.

The Gothic kings having aspired to extend their dominion over Sarmatia, those barbarians implored the protection of the Roman monarch in 332. As soon as Constantine had declared himself in favour of the weaker party, the haughty Alaric, king of the Goths, instead of expecting the attack of the legions, boldly passed the Danube and spread terror and devastation through the province of Mæsia. The aged emperor took the field and had the mortification of seeing his troops fly before the barbarians. The event of a second and more successful action retrieved the honour of the Roman name. The broken army of the Goths abandoned the field of battle and recrossed the Danube: although the eldest of the sons of Constantine was permitted to supply the place of his father, the merit of the victory was ascribed to the auspicious

counsels of the Emperor himself. He contributed at least to improve this advantage, by his negociations with the free and warlike people of Chersonesus, whose capital, situated on the western coast of the Tauric peninsula, still retained some vestiges of a Grecian colony, and was governed by a perpetual magistrate, assisted by a council of senators, emphatically styled the Fathers of the city. The Chersonites were animated against the Goths by the memory of the wars, which in the preceding century they had maintained, with unequal force, against the invaders of their country. They were connected with the Romans by the mutual benefits of commerce; as they were supplied from the provinces of Asia and the imperial city, with corn and manufactures, which they purchased with salt, wax and hides. Obedient to the requisition of Constantine, they prepared a considerable army, of which the principal strength consisted in cross bows and military chariots. The speedy march and intrepid attack of the Chersonites, by diverting the attention of the Goths, assisted the operations of the imperial generals. The Goths, vanquished on every side, were driven to the mountains, where, in the course of a severe campaign, above an hundred thousand perished with cold and hunger. Peace was at length granted and the eldest son of Alaric was accepted as the most valuable hostage; and Constantine endeavoured to convince their chiefs, by a liberal distribution of honours and rewards, how far the friendship of the Romans was preferable to their enmity. In the expressions of his

gratitude towards the faithful Chersonites, the emperor was still more magnificent. The pride of the nation was gratified by the splendid and almost royal decorations bestowed on their magistrate and his successors. A perpetual exemption from all duties was stipulated for their vessels, which traded to the ports of the Black Sea. A regular subsidy was promised of iron, corn, oil and every supply which could be used either in peace or war. It was thought the Sarmatians were sufficiently rewarded by their deliverance from impending ruin. Exasperated by this apparent neglect, they soon forgot the services they had so lately received. Their inroads on the territory of the empire provoked the indignation of Constantine to leave them to their fate. Wisaman the Vandal king was vanquished and slain in a decisive battle, which swept away the flower of the Sarmatian youth. A civil war ensued between the slaves and their masters, and some of the fugitive Sarmatians solicited protection under the hostile standard of the Goths. A more numerous band retired beyond the Carpathian mountains; but the far greater part of the distressed nation turned their eyes towards the fruitful provinces of Rome. Imploring the protection and forgiveness of the emperor they, solemnly promised, as subjects in peace and soldiers in war, the most inviolable fidelity to the empire, which should graciously receive them into its bosom. The offers of this barbarian colony were eagerly accepted; and a competent portion of lands in the provinces of Pannonia, Thrace, Macedonia and Italy, was

immediately assigned for the habitation and subsistence of three hundred thousand Sarmatians.

By chastising the pride of the Goths, and by accepting the homage of a suppliant nation, Constantine asserted the majesty of the Roman empire; the ambassadors of Æthiopia, Persia and the most remote countries of India congratulated the peace and prosperity of his government.

The whole trade of the Euxine was now concentered in the city of Constantinople, the limits of which were greatly extended, and every encouragement offered, to induce commercial and other emigrants to settle within its walls; but the illustrious emperor did not long enjoy his new and magnificent residence, which he had embellished by the erection of the most splendid public edifices, and the rarest efforts of Grecian and Roman sculpture. He died the 27th of May A. D. 337, and divided his vast empire among his three sons, Constantius, Constans and Constantine, but Constantine and Constans being slain, Constantius became sole emperor in 353. At the death of Constantius, which happened in the year 361, Julian commonly called the Apostate, son of Julius Constantius and nephew to Constantine the Great, assumed the imperial purple. He marched soon after into Persia, and was slain in battle on the banks of the Tigris in 363. Jovian, a christian officer, was chosen emperor, by the army and concluding an ignominious peace with Persia, purchased a safe retreat, but soon after dying, Valentinian another christian commander was decorated with the imperial robes. He named his

brother Valens his colleague in the empire, assigning him the eastern part.

It was in this reign that the first step towards a subversion of the western empire took place. The Goths in immense numbers crossed the Danube and commenced a war against Valens. After various skirmishes a battle ensued on the plains of Adrianople in the year 378, in which the Romans were totally defeated. Valens was never more seen. It was supposed he was consumed in the flames of a cottage in which he had taken refuge. By the death of Valens the empire fell into the hands of his nephew Gratian, who had some time before succeeded to Valentinian in the west; but at the end of the year 378, he declared Theodosius his partner in the empire, and committed the east to his care. Theodosius was a native of Spain. In four years and a half he terminated the Gothic war; assigned land to the vanquished barbarians, who submitted to the Roman sceptre on condition of being governed by their own laws.

Theodosius was in every respect a second Constantine the Great. Like him, he rendered the empire triumphant over all its enemies, extinguished intestine commotions, established christianity upon a solid basis, and divided the empire between his two sons Arcadius and Honorius; assigning to the former the eastern and to the latter the western part. From this period, the two monarchies forming separate and independent states, gradually became strangers to each other. Rome fell a prey to the

Goths, while Constantinople appeared totally unconcerned at the event.

When Theodosius II. ascended the throne of the East, the Goths and Vandals who had oppressed the Western world, were compelled to fly before the Huns. Their victorious hordes had spread from the Volga to the Danube. In the reign of Attila the Huns became the terror of the world, and that formidable barbarian, alternately insulted and invaded the East and the West, and urged the rapid downfal of the Roman empire. In the tide of emigration, which impetuously rolled from the confines of China to those of Germany, the most powerful tribes may commonly be found on the verge of the Roman provinces. The accumulated weight was sustained for a while by artificial barriers, but Theodosius was reduced to the more humble expedient of stipulating an annual payment of seven hundred pounds of gold. Such disgraceful policy did not long avert the impending danger. An enterprise had been concerted between the courts of Ravena and Constantinople, for the recovery of the African provinces from the Vandals. The subtle Genseric prevented their designs by exciting the king of the Huns to invade the eastern empire; and a trifling incident soon became the motive or pretence of a destructive war. Under the faith of the treaty of Mangus, a free market was held on the northern side of the Danube, which was protected by a Roman fortress, surnamed Constantia. In the year 441 a troop of barbarians violated the commercial security; killed or dis-

persed, the unsuspecting traders; and levelled the fortress with the ground. The Huns justified this outrage as an act of reprisal; alleged that the bishop of Mangus had entered their territories to discover and steal a secret treasure of their kings; and sternly demanded the guilty prelate, the sacrilegious spoil, and the fugitive subjects, who had escaped from the justice of Attila. The refusal of the Byzantine court was the signal of war. The Illyrian frontier was covered with a line of castles and fortresses, but these obstacles were instantly swept away, by the inundation of the Huns. They destroyed with fire and sword the populous cities of Sirmium, and Singidunum, of Ratiaria and Marcianapolis, of Naissus and Sardica. The whole breadth of Europe, as it extends, above five hundred miles from the Euxine to the Adriatic, was at once invaded, occupied, and desolated by the myriads of barbarians, whom Attila led into the field. The troops were recalled which had been sent against Genseric, and the garrisons on the side of Persia withdrawn, to reinforce the legions opposed to the Huns. The armies of the eastern empire were vanquished in three successive engagements. Attila ravaged without resistance, from the Hellespont to Thermopylæ, and the suburbs of Constantinople. Theodosius was reduced to solicit the clemency of Attila, who imperiously dictated harsh and humiliating conditions of peace.

About the period of the total destruction of the western empire, Basiliscus usurped the eastern and drove out Zeno the lawful emperor, but losing his

popularity by his cruelty, his generals joined Zeno, and restored him to the throne. During the short reign of Basiliscus, Constantinople experienced a dreadful conflagration; a considerable part of the city was consumed, together with the imperial library, which is supposed to have contained 120,000 volumes.

Zeno had the good fortune to escape other conspiracies, which were formed against him; but he was unsuccessful in the wars, which he urged against the Ostrogoths, and purchased a short peace, at the expense of the provinces of Lower Dacia and Mœsia. Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, soon renewed his irruptions into Thrace, and advanced within fifteen miles of Constantinople, which he was expected to besiege, when he suddenly turned his arms against Odoacer king of Italy.

Zeno died in 491 and was succeeded by Athanasius, at whose decease Justin ascended the throne and named Justinian his colleague in the year 527, who soon after became sole master of the empire.

Justinian first turned his whole force against Persia, and after a severe conflict, the king Chosroes was compelled to negociate a peace with Belisarius the imperial commander. During this war, a rebellion broke out at Constantinople; and Hypatius, nephew to Athanasius, was proclaimed emperor and carried in triumph to the circus, where he was beholding the sports from his throne, among the acclamations of the populace, when Belisarius on his return from Persia entered the city with his army. He immediately marched to the circus,

fell sword in hand upon the disarmed multitude, took the usurper and Pompey, another of the nephews of Athanasius, prisoners, who were beheaded.

Justinian now turned his arms against the Vandals of Africa and the Goths of Italy. Belisarius entered Rome where he was besieged by the Goths. His gallant defence, with only five thousand veterans, against a numerous army, during the space of a whole year, is considered one of the most signal military exploits recorded in history. In one assault the Goths lost 30,000 men.

The Gothic kingdom was at length completely subdued, and Vitiges the king was sent to Constantinople and had a rich estate assigned him in Asia Minor, as had Gelimer king of the Vandals, over whom Justinian had also triumphed. The Goths revolted again under the command of Totila, whom they had elected king, and Belisarius a second time retook Rome in 547; but at his recal, it was captured by the Goths. The command of the army of Italy was conferred on Narses, who made himself master of that country in 552. Italy was then made a province of the eastern or Byzantine empire.

By the conquest of Italy and Africa, Justinian gave to the eastern empire an aggrandizement, which it had never before possessed. He displayed consummate political abilities and left a noble monument of his legislative talents in his code of laws.

Justinian reigned over sixty four provinces, and nine hundred and thirty five cities; his dominions were blessed by nature with the advantage of soil, situation and climate: and the improvements of human art had been perpetually diffused along the coast of the Mediterranean and the banks of the Nile; from ancient Troy to the Egyptian Thebes. Abraham had been relieved by the well known plenty of Egypt; the same country, a small but populous tract, was still capable of exporting, each year, upwards of two millions of bushels of wheat, for the use of Constantinople; and the capital of Justinian was supplied with the manufactories of Sidon, fifteen centuries after they had been celebrated in the poems of Homer. The annual powers of vegetation, instead of being exhausted by two thousand harvests, were renewed and invigourated by skilful husbandry. The breed of domestic animals was infinitely multiplied. Plantations, buildings, and the instruments of labour and luxury, which are more durable than the term of human life, were accumulated by the care of successive generations. Tradition preserved and experience simplified the humble practice of the arts; society was enriched by the division of labour and the facility of exchange; and every Roman was lodged, clothed and subsisted by the industry of a thousand hands. The invention of the distaff and loom has been ascribed to the Gods. In every age, a variety of animal and vegetable productions, hair, skins, wool, flax, cotton, and, at length, silk, have been skilfully manufactured to hide or adorn

the human body; they were stained with an infusion of permanent colours; and the pencil was successfully employed to improve the labours of the loom. In the choice of those colours which imitate the beauties of nature, the freedom of taste and fashion was indulged; but the deep purple, which the Phœnicians extracted from a shell-fish, was restrained to the sacred person and palace of the emperor.

Till the reign of Justinian, the silk worms were confined to China. Whatever suspicions may be raised by the garments of the Medes and Assyians, Virgil is the most ancient writer who expressly mentions the soft wool, which was combed from the trees of the Seres, or Chinese; and this natural error, less marvellous than the truth, was slowly corrected by the knowledge of a valuable insect, the first artificer of the luxury of nations. That rare and elegant luxury, was censured in the reign of Tiberius, by the gravest of the Romans; and Pliny, in affected though forcible language, has condemned the thirst of gain, which explored the last confines of the earth, for the pernicious purpose of exposing to the public eye naked draperies and transparent matrons. A dress which shewed the turn of the limbs, and colour of the skin, might gratify vanity or provoke desire; the silks which had been closely woven in China, were sometimes unravelled by the Phœnician women, and the precious materials were multiplied by a looser texture, and the intermixture of linen threads.

Two hundred years after the birth of Pliny, the use of pure or even mixed silks was confined to the female sex, till the opulent citizens of Rome and the provinces were insensibly familiarized with the example of Heliogabalus, the first who by this effeminate habit, had sullied the dignity of an emperor and a man. Aurelian complained, that a pound of silk was sold at Rome for twelve ounces of gold; but the supply increased with the demand, and the price diminished with the supply.

A valuable merchandise of small bulk is capable of defraying the expense of land carriage; and caravans traversed the whole longitude of Asia, in two hundred and forty-three days, from the Chinese ocean to the sea coast of Syria.

Silk was immediately delivered to the Romans by the Persian merchants, who frequented the fairs of Armenia and Nisibis: but this trade, which in the intervals of truce was oppressed by avarice and jealousy, was totally interrupted by the long wars of the rival monarchies. The great king might proudly number Sogdiana and even Serica among the provinces of his empire; but his real dominion was bounded by the Oxus, and his useful intercourse with the Sogdoites, beyond the river, depended on the pleasure of their conquerors, the white Huns, and the Turks, who successively reigned over that industrious people. Yet the most savage dominion has not extirpated the seeds of agriculture and commerce in a region, which is celebrated as one of the four gardens

of Asia; the cities of Samarcand and Bochana are advantageously seated for the exchange of its various productions; and their merchants purchased from the Chinese the raw or manufactured silk, which they transported into Persia, for the use of the Roman Empire.

In the vain capitol of China, the Sogdian caravans were entertained as the suppliant embassies of tributary kingdoms. But the difficult and perilous march from Samarcand to the first town of Shensi could not be performed in less than sixty, eighty, or one hundred days: as soon as they had passed the Jaxartes, they entered the desert; and the wandering hordes, unless they are restrained by an armed force, have always considered the traveller as the object of lawful rapine. To escape the Tartar robbers and the tyrants of Persia, the silk caravans explored a more southern route; they traversed the mountains of Thibet, descended the stream of the Ganges or the Indus, and patiently awaited, in the ports of Guzerat and Malabar, the fleets of the West.

As silk became of indispensable use, the emperor Justinian saw with concern, that the Persians had occupied by land and sea, the monopoly of this important supply, and that the wealth of his subjects was continually drained by a nation of enemies. He solicited the aid of his christian allies, the Æthiopians of Abyssinia, who had recently acquired the art of navigation, the spirit of trade, and the sea port of Adulis, now called Arkiko, on the Red Sea, at the bottom of the bay of Ma-

suah. Along the African coast, they penetrated to the equator in search of gold, emeralds, and aromatics; but they declined an unequal competition, in which they must be always prevented by the vicinity of the Persians to the markets of India; and the emperor submitted to the disappointment, till his wishes were gratified by an unexpected event.

The gospel had been preached to the Indians; a bishop already governed the christians of St. Thomas on the coast of Malabar; a church was planted in Ceylon, and the missionaries pursued the footsteps of commerce, to the extremities of Asia. Two Persian monks had long resided in China. They viewed with a curious eye the manufactures of silk, and the myriads of silk worms, whose education had once been considered as the labour of queens. They soon discovered that it was impracticable to transplant the short-lived insect, but that in the eggs a numerous progeny might be preserved and multiplied in a distant climate. After a long journey, they arrived at Constantinople, imparted their project to the emperor, and were liberally encouraged by the gifts and promises of Justinian. These missionaries again entered China, deceived a jealous people, by concealing the eggs of the silk worm in a hollow cane, and returned in triumph with the spoils of the East. Under their direction the eggs were hatched, at the proper season, by artificial heat; the worms were fed with mulberry leaves; they lived and laboured in a foreign cli-

mate; a sufficient number of butterflies were saved to propagate the race, and trees were planted to supply the nourishment of the rising generations.

The fortifications of Europe and Asia were multiplied by Justinian. From Belgrade to the Euxine, from the conflux of the Save to the mouth of the Danube, a chain of above eighty fortified places was extended along the banks of the great river. Single watch towers were changed into spacious citadels; vacant walls were filled with colonies or provisions; a strong fortress defended the ruins of Trajan's bridge, and several military stations spread beyond the Danube, the pride of the Roman name. He constructed long walls in the Crimea for the protection of his friendly Goths. From that peninsula to Trebisond, the eastern course of the Euxine was secured by forts, by alliance or by religion.

In the seventh year of the reign of Justinian, one of the largest fleets that had ever passed the Hellespont sailed from Constantinople, under the command of Belisarius, for the conquest of Africa. Five hundred transports, navigated by twenty thousand mariners of Egypt, Cilicia and Ionia, were collected in the harbour, which received on board ten thousand horse and five thousand foot. The whole fleet, consisting of six hundred ships, was ranged in martial pomp before the gardens of the palace, about the time of the summer solstice, in the year 533: the patriarch pronounced his benediction, the emperor signified his last

commands, and the trumpet of Belisarius gave the signal of departure.

The Lazi in the time of Pliny, Arrian and Ptolemy were a particular tribe on the northern skirts of Colchis. In the age of Justinian they spread, or at least reigned over the whole country. At present they have migrated along the coast towards Trebisond, and compose a rude sea-faring people, with a peculiar language. Their independence was soon invaded by a formidable neighbour, who had acquired the sovereignty of Iberia. The dependent king of Lazica received his sceptre at the hand of the Persian monarch. In the beginning of the sixth century, the influence of the Romans was restored by the introduction of christianity, and Zathus, who had been exalted to the regal dignity, sought in the palace of Constantinople a noble wife and the alliance of the emperor Justin.

But this honourable connexion was soon corrupted by the avarice and ambition of the Romans. Degraded from the rank of allies, the Lazi were reminded by words and actions, of their dependent state. At the distance of a day's journey beyond the Apsarus, they beheld the rising fortress of Petra, which commanded the maritime country to the south of the Phasis. Instead of being protected by the valour, Colchis was insulted by the licentiousness of foreign mercenaries; the benefits of commerce were converted into base and vexatious monopoly; and Gubazes, the native prince, was reduced to a pageant of royalty by the superior influence of the officers of Justinian.

The friendship of Chosroes was solicited. The sagacious monarch instantly discovered the use and importance of Colchis. His ambition was fired by the hope of launching a Persian navy from the Phasis; of commanding the trade and navigation of the Euxine sea; of desolating the Coast of Pontus, and Bithynia; of attacking Constantinople, and of persuading the barbarians to second his arms and counsels against a monarch, whom they considered as the common enemy of mankind. Chosroes led his armies into Colchis. Petra was invested, and the Roman garrison prevented by a capitulation the impending fury of an assault. But the Lazi soon discovered that their impatience had urged them to choose an evil more intolerable than the calamities which they strove to escape. The authority of a Roman legislator was succeeded by the pride of an Oriental despot, who beheld with equal disdain, the slaves whom he had exalted, and the kings whom he had humbled before the footstool of his throne.

They solicited the protection of the Romans, and Justinian commanded Dagisteus, with seven thousand Romans and one thousand of the Zani, to expel the Persians, from the coast of the Euxine.

The seige of Petra, which the Roman general, with the aid of the Lazi, immediately undertook, is one of the most remarkable actions of the age. The city was seated on a craggy rock, which hung over the sea, and communicated by a steep and narrow path with the land. After a long and obstinate siege, in which both armies suffered great losses, the Romans were victorious, but the war was continued

for a number of years with various success. At one period the Romans were driven to the edge of the sea-shore; and their last camp, on the ruins of the Grecian colony of Phasis, was defended on all sides by strong intrenchments, the river, the Euxine and a fleet of gallies. After twenty years of destructive war, Chosroes was persuaded, on the payment of an annual tribute, to renounce his claim to the possession or sovereignty of Colchis and its dependant states.

Justinian died in the year 565. From that period the eastern empire began to decline. After the successive reigns of Justin II. and of Tiberius, to the accession of Maurice in 582, a spirit of revolt manifested itself in Constantinople, and terminated in the assassination of Maurice, and the election of Phocas, the centurion, in 602, who was deposed and put to death by Heraclius, whose reign is remarkable for a most obstinate contest with Persia, to which country it finally proved fatal.

About the year 609, Mahomet, an Arabian, assumed the character of a Prophet, and assembling together a determined and daring band, in whom he excited military enthusiasm, by means of religious tenets, calculated to flatter their passions, he subdued all the Arabian tribes, and attacked the Eastern empire; but his successor Abubeker preferred turning his arms towards Persia. After the death of Abubeker, which happened in 634, Omar his successor assailed the Byzantine empire, with renovated ardour. In the course of a few years,

both Syria and Egypt acknowledged the sway of the conqueror.

In the year 644 this new Saracen empire devoted to the Caliph Othman, who completed the conquest of Persia, and subdued all that part of Africa, which extended from Egypt to the Atlantic, and from the Mediterranean to the Great Desert of Sahara.

During the existence of the Saracen empire, Constantinople still resisted all the attacks of these Arabian conquerors. They twice laid siege to the city. In their first attempt their fleet blockaded Constantinople from 668 to 675.

Justinian II. who succeeded his father Constantine Pogonatus in 685, was naturally of a violent temper, and the name of a triumphant lawgiver was dishonored by the vices of a prince, who enjoyed the sufferings and feared the revenge of his subjects about two years, till the measure was full, of his crimes and of their patience. He was fond of war, and recovered several provinces from his enemies; but his exactions, cruelties and debaucheries tarnished the glory of his arms, and rendered him an object of hatred to all. He formed a design of destroying all the inhabitants of Constantinople; but Leontius a celebrated general attempted the deliverance of his country. He had groaned above three years, with some of the noblest and most deserving of the patricians, in a dark dungeon. Having been suddenly drawn forth to assume the government of Greece, he was followed to the port by his friends, who informed him that glory and empire might be the recompense of a generous resolution;

that every order of men abhorred the reign of the monster; and that the hands of two hundred thousand patriots expected only the voice of a leader. A night was chosen for their deliverance.

Justinian, in whose cause not a sword had been drawn, was dragged before the indignant multitude, who demanded the instant death of the tyrant. But Leontius, who was already clothed with the purple, cast an eye of pity on the prostrate son of his own benefactor. The life of Justinian was spared, and after having his nose amputated, the mutilated tyrant was banished to Chersonæ, a settlement in Taurica Chersonesus.

On the edge of the Scythian wilderness Justinian still cherished the pride of his birth and the hope of his restoration. After three years exile he received the pleasing intelligence, that his injury was revenged by a second revolution, and that Leontius in his turn had been dethroned and mutilated by the rebel Apsimar, who had assumed the name of Tiberius. But the claim of lineal succession was still formidable to a plebian usurper; and his jealousy was stimulated by the complaints and charges of the Chersonites, who beheld the vices of the tyrant in the spirit of the exile. With a band of followers attached to his person by common hope or common despair, Justinian fled from the inhospitable shore, to the land of the Chozars, who pitched their tents between the Tanais and Borysthenes. The chief entertained with pity and respect the royal suppliant: Phanagoria, once an opulent city of the Greeks, on the Asiatic side of the Cimmerian Bosporus, was as-

signed for his residence; and even Roman prejudice was stifled, in his marriage with Theodora the sister of the Barbarian. The faithless Chozar was soon tempted by the gold of Constantinople; and had not the design been revealed by the conjugal love of Theodora, her husband must have been assassinated, or betrayed into the power of his enemies. After strangling with his own hands the two emissaries of the Khan, Justinian sent back his wife to her brother, and embarked on the Euxine, in search of new and more faithful allies. His vessel was assaulted by a violent tempest; and one of his pious companions advised him to deserve the mercy of God, by a vow of general forgiveness, if he should be restored to the throne. "Of forgiveness?" replied the intrepid tyrant; "may I perish this instant—may the Almighty whelm me in the waves—if I consent to spare a single head of my enemies!" He survived this impious menace, sailed into the mouth of the Danube, trusted his person in the royal village of the Bulgarians, and purchased the aid of Terbelis a Pagan conqueror, by the promise of his daughter, and a fair portion of the treasure of the empire. The two princes immediately besieged Constantinople, at the head of fifteen thousand horse. After an absence of ten years, the crimes of Justinian were faintly remembered, and by the active diligence of his adherents, he was introduced into the city and palace of Constantine. He rewarded his allies, recalled his wife, but never was *vow more religiously* performed than the oath

of vengeance which he had sworn amidst the storms of the Euxine.

Leontius and Apsimar, and numerous other victims of his anger were executed, but his most implacable hatred was pointed against the Chersonites, who had insulted his exile. A grievous tax was imposed on Constantinople to supply the preparations of a fleet and army. "All are guilty, and all must perish," was the mandate of Justinian; and the bloody execution was entrusted to his favourite Stephen, who was remembered by the name of the Savage. The slowness of his attack allowed the greater part of the inhabitants to withdraw into the country; and the minister of vengeance contented himself with reducing the youth of both sexes to a state of servitude, with roasting alive seven of the principal citizens, with drowning twenty and with reserving forty two in chains, to receive their doom from the mouth of the Emperor. In their return, the fleet was driven on the rocky shores of Anatolia, and Justinian applauded the obedience of the Euxine, which had involved so many thousands of his subjects and enemies in a common shipwreck. The tyrant was still insatiate of blood, and a second expedition was commanded to extirpate the remains of the proscribed colony. In the short interval, the Chersonites had returned to their city and were prepared to die in arms; the Khan of the Chozars had renounced the cause of his odious brother; the exiles of every province were assembled at Tauris; and Bordanes, under the name of Philippicus, was invested with the pur-

ple. The imperial troops, unwilling and unable to perpetrate the revenge of Justinian, escaped his displeasure by abjuring his allegiance: the fleet under their new sovereign, steered back a more auspicious course, to the harbours of Sinope and Constantinople; and every tongue was prompt to pronounce, every hand to execute the death of the tyrant. Destitute of friends, he was deserted by his barbarian guards, and in the year 711, he fell by the stroke of an assassin, which was praised as an act of patriotism and Roman virtue.

The second siege of Constantinople by the Saracens in 716, was rendered memorable by the invention of the celebrated Greek fire, which totally destroyed the Saracen fleet, while the army which attacked the city on the land side, was compelled to raise the siege, with prodigious loss.

The dispute which broke out in the reign of Leo, about the year 720, between the Greek and Latin churches, as to the use of images in the christian temples, was the origin of those differences, which ultimately produced their total separation, and hastened the fall of Constantinople. A council was held at Constantinople by 338 prelates who condemned all visible representations of Christ and his Apostles, as heretical, which immediately caused the secession of Italy. A new Roman republic was established, but it did not long exist, and Charlemagne received from the Pope, Adrian IV. the title of Emperor of the Romans, and founded the holy Roman or German empire.

Irene, who began to reign in 780, strongly exerted herself in favour of the restoration of images, which was effected by the council of Nice in 787.*

The emperor Theophilus erected a government at Cherson in the year 840, to which he subjected all the towns of the Crimea and Cuban; for although these countries were tributary to the Khazanes, they yet acknowledged the supremacy of the Byzantine court. From the time the Khazanes had conquered the Crimea, that peninsula had taken the name of Khat or Gatyaria, except the mountainous part, which was called Gothia.

Jews were at this time numerous in the Crimea, who had collected there from various parts of the world, for commercial purposes.

During the four centuries which elapsed between the death of Theodosius and the reign of Charlemagne, Europe was in a state of anarchy and barbarism: the eastern empire alone exhibited marks of civilized society. The whole world was divided into the Eastern, Saracen, and Western empires. In the ninth century the Bulgarians became formidable enemies to the eastern empire; but were completely subdued by Basilius II. towards the end of the tenth century. The empire of the Saracens being split into a number of independent states, fell a prey to the Seljukian Turks, and other barbarous nations of Asia. This subversion of the caliphate was attended with the complete wreck of Arabian learning; and the Byzantine empire re-

* In Bithynia, on the north side of Asia Minor.

mained the sole depository of all that was worthy of notice, in literature, commerce, and the arts and embellishments of civilized society.

In the year 882, the Russians and Petschenegrans drove the Hungarians from the Crimea; and towards the middle of the eleventh century, they were forced to fly before the Komanes, otherwise called Ures, Rutyes, Polaftzes, or Polawzes, who also extorted a tribute from the Greeks and Goths that were left in the Crimea.

The name of Russians was first divulged in the ninth century, by an embassy of Theophilus, emperor of the East, to the emperor of the West, Lewis the son of Charlemagne. The Greeks were accompanied by the envoys of the great duke, or chagor, or *czar*, of the Russians. In their journey to Constantinople they had traversed many hostile nations; and they hoped to escape the danger of their return, by requesting the French monarch to transport them by sea to their native country. A closer examination detected their origin; they were the brethren of the Swedes and Normans, whose name was already odious and formidable to France. It was apprehended that these Russian strangers were not the messengers of peace, but the emissaries of war. They were detained, while the Greeks were dismissed; and Lewis expected a more satisfactory account, that he might obey the laws of hospitality, or prudence, according to the interest of both empires.

The Russians are of Scandinavian origin. The vast and populous regions of Denmark, Sweden

and Norway were crowded with independent chieftains and desperate adventurers. Piracy was the exercise, the trade, the glory, and the virtue of the Scandinavian youth. They explored every coast that promised either spoil or settlement. The Baltic was the first scene of their naval achievements. By the Fennic and Sclavonian tribes, and the primitive Russians of the lake Ladoga, they were saluted with the title of Varangians or Corsairs. In their wars against the more inland savages, the Varangians served as friends and auxiliaries, and gradually, by choice or conquest, obtained the dominion of a people, whom they were qualified to protect. Their tyranny was expelled, their valour was again recalled, till at length Ruric, a Scandinavian chief, became the father of a regal dynasty.

The example of service and usurpation was imitated by his companions, in the southern provinces of Russia; and their establishments by the usual methods of war and rapine were cemented into the fabric of a powerful monarchy. As long as the descendants of Ruric were considered as aliens and conquerors, they ruled by the sword of the Varangians, distributed estates to their faithful captives, and supplied their numbers with adventurers from the Baltic coast.

But when these Scandinavian chiefs had struck a deep and permament root into the soil, they mingled with the Russians in blood, religion and language, and the first Wolodomir, had the merit of delivering his country, from these foreign mercenaries.

They went to Constantinople where they performed the duty of guard with spotless loyalty. With their broad and double edged battleaxes on their shoulders they attended the emperor constantly, and the keys of the palace, the treasury and the capitol were held by the firm and faithful hands of the Varangians.

In the ninth century, the monarchy of the Russians extended over the spacious province of Wolodomir or Moscow; their western frontier was enlarged to the Baltic sea and the country of the Prussians; their northern boundary ascended above the sixtieth degree of latitude, over the Hyperborean regions, which fancy had peopled with monsters or clouded with eternal darkness; to the south they followed the course of the Borysthenes and approached with that river the neighbourhood of the Euxine.

Novogorod and Kiow, were the principal cities and coeval with the first age of the monarchy. In their origin the two cities were no more than camps or fairs, where the barbarians assembled for the occasional business, of war or trade. Novogorod is situated on the river Volchova, at the northern end of lake Ilmen, ninety two miles south easterly from St. Petersburgh and two hundred and sixty north west from Moscow. It was taken by Ruric in the ninth century, and made the capitol of his dominions. It became the great mart of trade between Russia and the Hanseatic towns, and made a most rapid advancement in opulence and population. Its dominions were so extensive, its power

so great and its situations so impregnable, as to give rise to a proverb, "*Who can resist the Gods and great Novogorod?*" In its most flourishing condition, it contained nearly half a million of inhabitants, but it is now in ruins and does not hold but about seven thousand persons.

Kiow stands on the banks of the Borysthenes, and from its grandeur, extensive trade and riches was the rival capitol. Eight large fairs were held there annually. The spirit of commercial enterprise among the Russians pervaded the sea and land, from the Baltic to the Euxine, from the mouth of the Oder to the port of Constantinople. In the days of idolatry and barbarism, the Sclavonic city of Julin was frequented and enriched by the Normans, who had secured a free mart of purchase and exchange. From this harbor at the entrance of the Oder, the Corsair or merchant sailed to the eastern shores of the Baltic, and the most distant nations were intermingled. Between the sea and Novogorod, an easy intercourse was discovered; in the summer, through lake Ladoga, and the river Volchova; in the winter season, over the hard and level surface of boundless snows.

From the neighbourhood of that city, the Russians descended the streams that fall into the Borysthenes; their canoes made of a single tree, laden with slaves of every age and sex, furs of every species, honey, hides, and the whole produce of the north, was collected and discharged in the magazines of Kiow.

The month of June was the ordinary season of the departure of the fleet, which consisted of more solid and capacious boats than those used above Kiow; they proceeded without obstacle down the Borysthenes, as far as the cataracts.

At some of the falls, it was sufficient to lighten the boats, but the others were impassible and the mariners, who dragged their boats and cargoes six miles over land, were exposed in their toilsome journey to the robbers of the desert. At the first island below the falls, the Russians celebrated the festival of their escape; at a second, near the mouth of the river, they repaired their shattered boats, for the longer and more perilous voyage of the Black Sea. If they steered along the coast, the Danube was accessible; with a fair wind they could reach, in thirty six or forty hours, the opposite shores of Anatolia; and Constantinople admitted the strangers of the North. They returned at the stated season, with a rich cargo of corn, wine and oil, the manufactures of Greece and the spices of India. Some of their countrymen resided in the capitol and provinces; and the national treaties protected the persons, effects and privileges of the Russian merchants.

But the same communication which had been opened for their benefit, was soon abused, for the injury of mankind. In a period of one hundred and ninety years, the Russians made four attempts to plunder the treasures of Constantinople. The Russian merchants had seen the magnificence and tasted the luxury of the city of the Cæsars. A mar-

vellous tale and a scanty supply, excited the desires of their savage countrymen: they envied the gifts of nature, which their climate denied; they coveted the works of art which they were not able to imitate, and too indigent to purchase: the Varangian princes unfurled the banners of piratical adventure, and their bravest soldiers were drawn from the nations that dwelt in the northern isles of the ocean.

The bottom of their vessels was scooped out of the long trunk of some large tree, but the slight and narrow foundation was raised and continued on either side with planks, till it attained the length of sixty and the height of about twelve feet.

Their vessels were built without a deck, but with a rudder at each end, and a mast; to move with sails and oars; and to contain from forty to seventy men, with their arms, and provisions of fresh water and salt fish.

The first trial of the Russians was made under the princes of Kiow, with a fleet of two hundred sail, but when the national force was exerted they might arm against Constantinople, a thousand or twelve hundred vessels. Had the Greek emperors been endowed with foresight to discern, or vigour to prevent, they might have sealed with a superior maritime force, the mouth of the Borysthenes. Their indolence abandoned the coast of Anatolia to the calamities of a piratical war, which, after an interval of six hundred years again infested the Euxine; but as long as the Capitol was respected, the sufferings of a distant province escaped the notice both of the prince and historian.

The storm which had swept along from the Phasis and Trebisond, at length burst on the Bosporus of Thrace, in which the rude vessels of the Russians might have been stopped and destroyed by a more skilful adversary; but they were suffered to pass without opposition and occupied the port of Constantinople, in the absence of the emperor Michael, during the year 865.

A tremendous storm compelled the Russians to retreat after sustaining considerable loss.

In the year 904, Oleg the guardian of the sons of Ruric, made an unsuccessful attempt to capture the metropolis of the East. At this time a strong barrier of arms and fortifications defended the Bosporus.

The leader of the third armament, Igor, the son of Ruric, chose a moment of weakness and decay, in the year 941, when the naval powers of the empire were employed against the Saracens.

He fitted out a fleet of a thousand sail. One part of this force was sent to make depredations on the coast of Anatolia, and with the remainder he sailed for the Bosporus, where he was assailed, by only fifteen gallies, which were boldly launched against this powerful fleet; but instead of the single tube of Greek fire usually planted on the prow, the sides and stern of each vessel were abundantly supplied with that liquid and unquenchable combustible. The engineers were dexterous; the weather was propitious; many thousand Russians, who chose rather to run the risk of being

drowned than burnt, leaped into the sea; and those who escaped, to the Thracian shore were slaughtered by the soldiers and peasants. About one third of the Russian fleet escaped into shallow waters; and the next spring, Igor was again prepared to retrieve his disgrace and claim his revenge, but negociations were commenced and in 944 a treaty of peace concluded.

The Russians extended their commerce upon the borders of Cuban Tartary, and the sea of Azof.

After a long peace, Jaroslous, the great grandson of Igor, resumed the project of a naval invasion of the Byzantine empire. A large fleet, under the command of his son, was repulsed at the entrance of the Bosporus, by the same artificial flames, which had proved so destructive to the armament of Igor. But in the rashness of pursuit, the vanguard of the Greeks was encompassed by an irresistible multitude of vessels and men, and twenty four gallies were either taken, sunk, or destroyed.

The reiterated threats and calamities of Russian wars, it was ultimately found could be better diverted by treaty than by arms. At first the demands of the Russians were high, three pounds of gold for each soldier or mariner of the fleet, and the Russian youth adhered to the design of conquest and glory; but the counsels of moderation were recommended by the hoary sages. "Be content," they said, "with the liberal offers of Cæsar; is it not far better to obtain

without a combat, the possession of gold, silver, silks, and all the objects of your desires? Can we conclude a treaty with the sea? We do not tread on the land; we float on the abyss of water, and a common death hangs over our heads." Peace was concluded, but the memory of these arctic fleets, that seemed to descend from the polar circle, left a deep impression of terror on the imperial city.

By the vulgar of every rank, it was asserted and believed, that an equestrian statue, in the square of Taurus, was secretly inscribed with a prophecy, that the Russians, in the last days, should become masters of Constantinople. This brazen statue, which had been brought from Antioch, and was melted down by the Latins, was supposed to represent either Joshua or Bellerophon.

By land the Russians were less formidable than by sea; and as they fought for the most part on foot, their irregular legions were often broken and overthrown by the cavalry of the Scythian hordes. Yet their growing towns presented a shelter to the subject, and a barrier to the enemy. The monarchy of Kiow assumed the dominion of the north; and the nations from the Volga to the Danube were subdued or repelled by the arms of Swatoslaus, the son of Igor, who mounted the Russian throne in 955. The vigour of his mind and body was fortified by the hardships of a military and savage life. The exercise of war gave stability and discipline to his army.

By an embassy from Nicephorus, the Greek emperor, he was induced to undertake the con-

quest of Bulgaria. An army of sixty thousand men was assembled and embarked; they sailed from the Borysthenes to the Danube; after landing they had a sharp encounter, but the swords of the Russians prevailed against the arrows of the Bulgarian horse. The vanquished king sunk into his grave; his children were made captives and his dominions, as far as mount Hæmus, were subdued or ravaged by the northern invaders. But instead of relinquishing his prey and performing his engagements, the prince was more disposed to advance than to retire. The bands of Patzinacites and Chozars, repaired to the standard of victory; and the ambassador of Nicephorus betrayed his trust, assumed the purple and promised to share with his new allies the treasures of the eastern world. From the banks of the Danube, Swatoslaus pursued his march, as far as Adrianople; a formal summons to evacuate the Roman province was dismissed with contempt, and the Russian prince fiercely replied, that Constantinople might soon expect the presence of an enemy and a master.

Nicephorus could no longer expect the mischief which he had introduced, by the fatal embassy; but his throne was inherited by John Zimisces, who possessed the spirit and abilities of a hero. The first victory of his army in 970, deprived the Russians of their allies, twenty thousand of whom were either destroyed by the sword, or provoked to revolt. Thrace was delivered, but seventy thousand barbarians were still in arms, and

the legions that had been recalled from the conquests of Syria, prepared with the return of the spring, to march under the banners of a warlike prince.

The passes of Mount Hæmus had been left unguarded; they were immediately occupied. The Emperor led the main body, of ten thousand foot and five thousand horse. The first exploit of Zimisces, was the reduction of Marianopolis and Peristhlaba, in two days; eight thousand five hundred Russians were put to death, and the sons of the Bulgarian king rescued from prison and invested with a nominal diadem. After these disasters Swatoslaus retired to the strong port of Driestra, on the banks of the Danube, whither he was pursued.

The Byzantian gallies ascended the river; the legions completed a line of circumvallation around the city, and after a siege of sixty five days the Russian was compelled to capitulate. He bound himself by solemn imprecations to relinquish all hostile designs; a safe passage was offered for his return, and the liberty of trade and navigation was restored. After a tempestuous and painful voyage, the Russians reached the mouth of the Borysthenes; but their provisions were exhausted and the season unfavourable. They passed the winter on the ice, and before they could prosecute their march, Swatoslaus was surprised and oppressed by the neighbouring tribes.

In the year 988, a pagan of the north Wolodomir, or Vladimir, great prince of Russia, aspired to a daughter of the Roman purple. He had invad-

ed the Chersonesus, then a province of the Byzantine empire, with a formidable army, and rendered himself master of the city of Theodosia, by stratagem, and reduced the whole peninsula. He then demanded Anne daughter of the Emperor Romanus III. in marriage, and enforced his claim by the threats of war, the promise of conversion to christianity, the offer of a powerful succour against a domestic rebel, and the restoration of the conquered provinces. A victim of her religion and country, the Grecian princes was torn from the palace of her father, and condemned to a savage reign, and an hopeless exile, on the banks of the Borysthenes, or in the neighbourhood of the polar circle.

The Emperor Constantius XI. who died in the year 1063, left the empire to his three sons, and appointed the empress Eudocia regent during their minority, upon condition she should not marry again; but regardless of her oath, she married Romanus Diogenes, who was proclaimed emperor. In an engagement with the Turks, Romanus was wounded and taken prisoner. Before his return to Constantinople, Eudocia was driven from the throne, and her eldest son, Michael Ducas, proclaimed emperor. Romanus having retired to a strong castle, was besieged and killed. Immediately after his death the empire was again invaded by the Turks. Alexius Comnenus having wrested the sceptre from Nicephorus Botoniates, who had deposed Michael Ducas, compelled Solyman, the Turkish Sultan, to make peace, and forced the Scy-

thians, who had laid waste a great part of Thrace, to submit to his own terms.

During the eleventh century, the city of Soug-daia or Sugdoya, now called Sudock, in the Crimea, rose into such consideration by its commerce, that all the possessions of the Greeks in the peninsula, received the name of Sugdonia; and in 1204, the Greeks no longer acknowledged the supremacy of the Byzantine empire.

The Komanes were subdued by the Mongales or Tartars in 1237, and after that period, the Crimea formed a province of the Tartar empire, and the Greeks and Goths were compelled to pay tribute to the Mongales.

At the commencement of the Tartar government, a number of Circassians established themselves in the Crimea. Kertsch was governed by a prince of that nation, who gave the town of Solgat the name of Krim; and as the principal commerce of the Tartars was concentrated at Krim, the peninsula assumed that name, under which it is now only known by the orientals.

The war with the Turks was renewed in 1083, and carried on with various success. But about the year 1095, a romantic scene of religious enthusiasm and military enterprise, began to display itself, and though it threatened the utter ruin of the Turkish nation, proved finally fatal to Constantinople, as a christian metropolis.

Under the polished reign of the Caliphs, the frequent pilgrimages to the holy sepulchres, at Jerusalem, had been encouraged; but the barbarians,

who had overturned the caliphate, oppressed the pilgrims with unreasonable impositions and often added insult to injustice. Incensed at these outrages, Peter the hermit, who had visited the holy sepulchre, preached a crusade for the recovery of the holy land, from the infidels. The Pope approved the project, and the princes and nobles of Europe readily entered into the measure.

This religious war was carried on with some intervals, during the space of almost two hundred years, from the setting out of the first crusade in 1095, to the loss of Acre and all Palestine in 1291. Innumerable armies were collected out of England, France, Germany, the Netherlands and Italy. Yet these tremendous efforts were not attended with effects of such permanency as might have been expected. But one of the most remarkable events which occurred in the course of the crusades, was, the capture of the city of Constantinople.

The emperor, Isaac Angelus, having been deposed and deprived of sight by his inhuman brother, his son Alexius, who was only a youth, made his escape into Italy, and met with a number of the barons of France and Flanders, who were come to Venice to contract with the Republic for the ships necessary to facilitate one of these crusading enterprises. He concluded with them a treaty whereby they engaged to restore his father to the imperial throne of the East, and he promised to unite the Greek to the Latin church. The French and Venetians changing the destination of their armament, sailed up the Hellespont to Constantinople, broke

the chain of the harbor, and assaulted the city. When they were almost ready to enter the town, the Emperor made his escape. Isaac Angelus and his son, the young Alexius, were proclaimed joint Emperors. A cessation of arms took place; but as soon as the clergy understood the terms of the treaty concluded by young Alexius, they reprobated the idea of an union with the Sea of Rome, and excited the people to fly to arms. The insurrection was also fomented by Alexius Mourzoufle, of the family of Ducas, who assumed the purple, imprisoned the blind emperor, and put young Alexius to death. The legal succession of the Greek empire being thus overturned, the French and Venetians recommenced the war. After a siege of more than three months, they assaulted the city from the harbor and carried it by storm, eight hundred and eighty years after its foundation by Constantine. The city was given up to pillage, and Baldwin, earl of Flanders, elected emperor with one fourth part of the empire for his share: the rest was divided among the barons and knights, into fiefs held under the emperor.

The Greeks after this disaster, established independent states at Nice, Trebisond and Epirus. The Latins were not prosperous in their newly acquired empire. The dissensions which prevailed among the barons, laid their dominions open to the attacks of the Greeks. They continually gained ground. The Bulgarians also revolted, and the emperor Baldwin, being defeated and taken prisoner by them, died in captivity. He was succeeded by his

brother Henry, who shewed himself of equal capacity for peace or war.

Henry checked the proceedings of the popish legate, in the persecution of the Greek schismatics; but after his death, which happened in 1216, the Latin empire of Constantinople, rapidly declined; and so pressing were the exigencies of the state, that Baldwin II. the last emperor of the Latin dynasty, pledged to the Venetians the crown of thorns pretended to have been worn by Christ.

At last Michael Paleologus, having usurped the Greek empire of Nice, his general, Alexius Strategopulus, with an inconsiderable force, surprised and recovered Constantinople in 1261: and thus, after a period of fifty seven years, that metropolis returned under the dominion of the Greeks. But a considerable part of the city had been destroyed by the three dreadful conflagrations which happened at the time of the siege and capture by the Latins. Constantinople never more regained that splendor which it had all along maintained. The imperial palace, which during eleven centuries, had been the admiration of all who visited the East, was in ruins. It stood between the Hippodrome and the magnificent church of St. Sophia. Its superb gardens descended by several rows of terraces to the shore of the Propontis. The primitive edifice, erected by Constantine, rivalled the palace of the Cæsars on the Palatine Mount. The improvements made by his successors still added to its magificence; and the emperors of the Comnenian dynasty had taken particular delight in embellishing this imperial residence.

The inveterate enmity of the clergy and people against the Latin church still subsisted. To avert a crusade, which the Latins were meditating against Constantinople, Michael Paleologus negociated with the Pope and concluded a concordat between the Greek and Latin churches; but at his death, in the year 1282, the union was dissolved. His son Andronicus, who succeeded him, restored the ancient Greek ceremonies, and by this imprudent step threw the empire into a new ferment.

In the mean time Constantine his brother successfully opposed the Turks, who continued their encroachments, but his valour rendered him suspected by the emperor. Constantine was thrown into prison. On his removal from the army, the Turks, under the famous Othoman, made themselves masters of several places. Philantropenus and Libadarius, two officers of great merit, were sent to oppose him. The former gained some advantages over the enemy; but elated with his success he caused himself to be proclaimed emperor. This rebellion however was soon suppressed. Philantropenus was betrayed by his own men; but the Turks, taking advantage of their intestine commotions, extended their dominions in Asia, conquered most of the islands in the Mediterranean and infested the coasts of the empire. Andronicus, not trusting his subjects, hired the Massagetes* to assist him; but they being defeated, turned their arms against him. He next applied to the Catalans who behaved

* A people of Asia, who inhabited the country, on the west of the Caspian Sea.

in the same manner, and in 1292, assailed the empire in conjunction with the Turks. This was their first appearance in Europe, and their enterprize proved unsuccessful.

New commotions having taken place in the empire, the Turks returned to the charge in 1327. The next year, however, Othoman, who may be styled the founder of the Turkish monarchy, being dead, the emperor recovered Nice and some other places, which were again lost the year following; and in 1330, a peace was concluded, which left the Turks in possession of their conquests. This peace the Turks broke in 1357. Having reduced all Asia, they crossed the Hellespont, and took a strong castle on the European side. Soon after the Sultan, Amurath, advancing still farther, made Adrianople the seat of his empire. He was slain by treachery, and succeeded by his son Bajazet, who levied a yearly tribute on the emperor of Constantinople, and commanded him to send him his son Manuel, to attend him in his military expeditions. This humiliating demand was complied with; but the emperor dying in 1392, Manuel hastened to Constantinople, without taking leave of the Sultan. This incensed Bajazet so highly, that he passed with great expedition into Thrace; ravaged the country adjoining Constantinople, and at last invested the city, both by sea and land. In this extremity, Manuel had recourse to the western princes, who sent him an army of 130,000 men, under the command of Sigismund, King of Hungary, and John, Count of Nevers. After a few successes they

were defeated with great slaughter by Bajazet, who resumed the siege of the city, and would infallibly have accomplished the conquest of Constantinople, had he not been obliged to turn his forces against Tamerlane, the victorious Tartar, by whom he was overcome in battle at Angora, in Asia Minor, and made prisoner. In the feast of victory to which Bajazet was invited, the Mogul emperor placed a crown on his head and a sceptre in his hand, with a solemn assurance of restoring him, with an increase of glory, to the throne of his ancestors; but the effect of this promise was prevented by the untimely death of the Sultan. He expired about nine months after his defeat, in the year 1403. As the relief which the diversion in the war with Tamerlane occasioned, could not be expected to be of long duration, Manuel Paleologus resigned the royal power to his nephew, as soon as the siege of the city was raised, and set sail for Venice, and from thence visited London and Paris, in the year 1400, in the reign of Henry IV. of England, and Charles VI. of France, with the view of procuring some assistance, which the circumstances of those countries did not permit them to grant. He also endeavoured to negociate a union with the Latin church; but the negociation broke off. He returned after an absence of two years to the Morea, where he heard of the defeat of Bajazet. On his arrival at Constantinople he found, that from the Irtisch and Volga to the Persian Gulf, and from the Ganges to Damascus and the Archipelago, Asia was in the hands of Tamerlane; that his armies

were invincible, his ambition boundless, and there were apprehensions that his zeal might aspire to conquer and convert the christian kingdoms of the West, which already trembled at his name. He touched the utmost verge of the land, but an insuperable, though narrow sea, rolled between the two continents of Europe and Asia; and the lord of so many myriads of horse, was not master of a single galley. The two passages of the Bosporus and Hellespont, of Constantinople and Gallipoli, were possessed, the one by the Christians, the other by the Turks. On this great occasion, they forgot the difference of religion, to act with union and firmness in the common cause; the double straits were guarded with ships and fortifications. But the fears and fancy of nations, ascribed to the ambitious Tamerlane a new design of vast and romantic compass; a design of subduing Egypt and Africa, marching from the Nile to the Atlantic ocean, and entering Europe by the straits of Gibralter, and, after imposing his yoke on the kingdoms of Christendom, of returning home by the wilds of Russia and Tartary. Tamerlane had other views. He unfurled his standard for the invasion of China, which was saved by his death at Otrar, in 1405.

After the death of Bajazet, his sons were engaged in civil wars, for the sceptre of the Ottoman empire. Solyman solicited the assistance of Manuel and the government or gift of Romania, and promised inviolable friendship, and the restitution of Thessalonica, with the most important

places along the Strymon, the Propontis, and the Black Sea. This alliance exposed the emperor to the enmity and revenge of Mousa, the fourth son, and the Turks appeared in arms before the gates of Constantinople, but they were repulsed by sea and land.

In the year 1422, Amurath II. invested the imperial city. The strength of the walls resisted an army of two hundred thousand Turks; their assaults were repelled by the sallies of the Greeks and their foreign mercenaries. In this siege cannon were first used. The Turks pointed their thundering artillery against the walls and towers, which had been erected only to resist the less potent engines of antiquity. After two months had been spent under the ramparts of Constantinople, Amurath was recalled to Boursa, by a domestic revolt. While he led his Janizaries to new conquests in Europe and Asia, the Byzantine empire was indulged in a servile and precarious respite of thirty years. Manuel sunk into his grave, and his son John, who succeeded him, was more fortunate in his negociations for a union of the Greek and Latin churches. He concluded a treaty at Florence with Pope Eugenius IV.; but it was universally reprobated by the whole body of the clergy of Constantinople, and the emperor was obliged to renounce it. He did not long survive these unhappy disturbances, and in 1448, left the empire, now confined almost within the walls of Constantinople, to the last Constantine.

Upon the near prospect of being besieged in his capitol, by Mahomet II., Constantine Paleologus renewed the concordat with the Latin church. A cardinal legate from Rome was admitted at Constantinople; but after he had officiated in the cathedral of St. Sophia, the Greek clergy abandoned it as a polluted temple, and the whole city of Constantinople displayed every extreme of fanaticism and aversion against the Latin church. Though reduced to a narrow corner between the Propontis and the Euxine, the Byzantine empire continued the theatre of crimes, and political as well as fanatical factions.

Of the triangle which composes the figure of Constantinople, the two sides along the sea were made inaccessible to an enemy by nature and art. Between the two waters, the basis of the triangle, the land side was protected by a double wall, and a wide and deep ditch. Against this line of fortification, the Ottomans directed their principal attack. A circumstance that distinguishes the siege of Constantinople, is the union of ancient and modern arms; on both sides cannon and small arms were intermingled with the arrows, javelins and mechanical engines for casting stones and darts. The ball and battering ram were directed against the same walls.

The nation which once dictated law to the universe, had become pusillanimous and base; but the last Constantine deserves the name of a hero. His noble band of veterans was inspired with Roman virtue; and the foreign auxiliaries

supported the honour of the Western chivalry. The emperor made a vigorous defence and rashly refused advantageous terms of capitulation. He had negociated in the isles of the Archipelago, the Morea and Sicily the most indispensable supplies, but the generosity of the Christian princes was cold and tardy. Five large ships, equipped for merchandise and war, had been expected from the harbour of Chios, before the city was invested by sea and land, but were prevented from sailing by adverse winds. One of these ships bore the imperial flag; the remaining four were laden with wheat, barley, wine, oil, and vegetables, and above all with soldiers and mariners, for the service of the capitol, which had suffered very materially from a want of provisions and naval protection against the fleets of Mahomet. After a tedious delay, a strong gale from the south carried them through the Hellespont and the Propontis; but the Turkish fleet at the entrance of the Bosporus was stretched from shore to shore, in the form of a crescent, to intercept, or at least repel, these bold auxiliaries. The reader who has present to his mind the geographical picture of Constantinople, will conceive and admire the greatness of the spectacle. The five christian ships continued to advance with joyful shouts, and a full press of sail, against a hostile fleet of three hundred vessels; and the ramparts, the camp, the coasts of Europe and Asia, were lined with innumerable spectators, who anxiously waited the event of this momentous succour.

At the first view, that event could not appear doubtful; the superiority of the Moslems was beyond all measure or account; and, in a calm, their numbers and valour must inevitably have prevailed. But their hasty and imperfect navy had been created, not by the genius of the people, but by the will of the Sultan; in the height of their prosperity, the Turks have acknowleged, that if God had given them the earth, he had left the sea to the infidels. Except eighteen gallies of some force, the rest of their fleet consisted of open boats, rudely constructed and awkwardly managed, crowded with troops and destitute of cannon. In the christian squadron, five stout and lofty ships were guided by skilful pilots, and manned with the veterans of Italy and Greece, long practised in the arts and perils of the sea. Their weight was directed to sink or scatter the weak obstacles that impeded their passage; their artillery swept the waters; their liquid fire was poured on the heads of the adversaries, who with the design of boarding, presumed to approach them; and the winds and waves are always on the side of the ablest navigators. In this conflict, the imperial vessel which had been almost overpowered, was rescued by the other ships. The Turks were twice repulsed with considerable loss. Mahomet himself sat on horseback on the beach, to encourage their valour by his voice and presence, by the promise of reward, and by fear, more potent than the fear of the enemy. The passions of his soul, and even the gestures of his

body seemed to imitate the actions of the combatants; and as if he had been the lord of nature, he spurred his horse with a fearless impotent effort into the sea. His loud reproaches and the clamours of the camp, urged the Ottomans to a third attack, more fatal and bloody than the two former; they fled in disorder to the shores of Europe and Asia, while the christian squadron triumphant and unhurt, steered along the Bosporus, and securely anchored within the chain of the harbor. It is reported that the Turks lost above twelve thousand men in the slaughter of that day.

The introduction of this supply, revived the hopes of the Greeks and accused the supineness of their western allies. Mahomet began to meditate a retreat, as the reduction of the city appeared to be hopeless, unless a double attack could be made from the harbor as well as from the land. The harbor was inaccessible; an impenetrable chain was now defended by eight large ships, more than twenty of a smaller size, and several gallies. In this perplexity the genius of Mahomet conceived a plan of a bold and marvellous cast, of transporting by land, his lighter vessels, and military stores from the Bosporus into the higher part of the harbor. The distance is about ten miles. A level way was constructed covered with a broad platform of strong and solid plank; and to render them more slippery and smooth, they were anointed with the fat of sheep and oxen. Eighty light gallies and brigantines of fifty and thirty oars, were disembarked on the Bosporus shore; arranged successively on rol-

lers, and drawn forward by the power of oxen and pullies. Guides or pilots were stationed at the helm and the prow of each vessel; the sails were unfurled to the winds, and the labour was cheered by song and acclamation. In the course of a single night, this Turkish fleet steered over the land, and was launched from the declivity, into the shallow waters of the harbor.

As soon as Mahomet had occupied the upper harbor with a fleet and army, he constructed a bridge in the narrowest part; it was formed of casks, joined with rafters, linked with iron, and covered with a solid floor. On this floating battery, he planted one of his largest cannon, while the gallies, with troops and scaling ladders, approached the most accessible side. After a siege of forty days, the fate of Constantinople could no longer be averted. The diminutive garrison was exhausted by a double attack; the fortifications, which had stood for ages against hostile violence, were dismantled on all sides by the Ottoman cannon, and Mahomet declared his resolution of finding a throne, or a grave, under the walls of Constantinople. On the evening of the twenty seventh of May, he issued his final orders; assembled in his presence the military chiefs, and dispersed his heralds through the camp, to proclaim the duty and the motives of the perilous enterprise. His menaces were expressed in the oriental style, that the fugitives and deserters, had they the wings of a bird, should not escape from his inexorable justice.

On the twenty ninth of May at day-break, without the customary signal of the morning gun, Mahomet assaulted the city by sea and land, with upwards of three hundred thousand men. Amidst the tumult, Constantine gallantly fell in the breach, by which the victorious Turks entered the city. After his death resistance and order were no more.

A shocking scene soon followed. The persons and property of the citizens were given up to the disposal of the conquering army. The terrified people fled to the cathedral of St. Sophia, and other asylums, from whence they were dragged forth, and without any distinction of sex or rank chained together, driven through the streets like beasts, and more than sixty thousand of them sold into slavery. Mahomet, at the expiration of the three days, allowed for pillage, made his triumphal entry into Constantinople, which he named the capitol of the Ottoman empire, and which has ever since held that station.

David the last of the Comnerian race, who, after the capture of Constantinople by the Latins, had founded a new empire on the eastern coast of the Black Sea, was compelled by Mahomet, to abdicate his throne. In the year 1460, the Sultan, in the progress of his Anatolian conquests, invested with a fleet and army the capitol of David, who presumed to style himself emperor of Trebisond, and sent him this short and peremptory question: "Will you secure your life and treasures, by resigning your kingdom? or had you rather forfeit your kingdom, your treasures, and your life?"

The feeble prince, subdued by his fears and the example of the sovereign of Sinope, who, on a similar summons, had yielded a fortified city with four hundred cannon, and ten or twelve thousand soldiers, disgracefully "secured his life and treasures."

At the close of the tenth century, the two republics of Genoa and Venice, became almost the sole possessors of the trade of the Black and Azof Seas. It was for a long time of immense importance to them, in consequence of the troubles occasioned by the Crusades in Syria, Palestine and Egypt, which interrupted the usual route, to and from India, and gave a direction to the caravans, by the way of the Caspian Sea, through Astrakan to Tana, which made it necessary to establish entrepots at different points. The time and circumstances particularly favoured those on the Black Sea. Kaffa, formed by the Genoese, on the ruins of the ancient Theodosia, was their principal entrepot, while Azof or Tana, near the mouth of the Don, was chosen by the Venetians, as the seat of their commercial establishments.

Each of these two rival republics endeavoured exclusively to possess the whole commerce of the Black Sea. They were thus engaged in a long and obstinate contest, in which the Genoese often gained the superiority. But at last the Venetians, having with the French aided the emperor Isaac Angelus and his son Alexius, in the recapture of Constantinople, from a cruel and tyrannical usurper, in the year 1203, acquired the ascendancy, which they maintained with a powerful fleet, after the

conquest of the Byzantine empire, and the establishment of the Latin Dynasty, in the following year.

The Greeks being divided into religious and political factions, became the vassals of their deliverers, and saw their empire divided as the spoil of conquest among nations, which they had for centuries proudly looked upon as barbarians.

Theodore withdrew into Asia Minor, and under the title of emperor, reigned over a fragment of the ancient dominions of the Eastern monarchy, lying between the banks of the Mæander and the suburbs of Nicomedia.

Michael, a bastard of the house of Angeli, founded a principality in Epirus, Ætolia and Thessaly; and another distant portion was possessed by Alexius, the lineal heir of the Comneri, and grandson of the tyrant Andronicus. As governor or duke of Trebisond, he reigned over the provinces bordering on the Euxine, from Sinope to the river Phasis.

The Genoese being deeply interested, and suffering materially for upwards of fifty years, from this conquest of the Venetians and French, aided the Greeks, in retaking Constantinople from the Latins, in the year 1261.

For their distinguished services, the Genoese received from the Greeks, the right, exclusively to navigate the Black Sea, and attempted entirely to exclude the Venetians, but they still enjoyed the trade of Azof; which however was very limited and depended on that of Astrakan.

The Genoese, who, after the recovery of the imperial capital, were seated in the suburbs of Pera or Galata, also received that honorable fief, from the bounty of the emperor Michael Paleologus, as a pledge of his friendship and a reward for their gallant conduct, in that memorable battle, which restored to him the sceptre of his ancestors.

They were indulged in the use of their laws and magistrates; but they submitted to the duties of subjects.

The republic of Genoa sealed a firm alliance with the Greeks; and, in case of a defensive war, a supply of fifty empty gallies, and a succour of fifty completely armed and manned, were promised to the emperor. But after a few years of peace and the revival of a naval force, Paleologus discovered a disposition to deliver himself from all foreign aid; and his vigorous government contained the Genoese of Galata within those limits, which the insolence of wealth and freedom provoked them to exceed.

A sailor threatened that they should soon be masters of Constantinople, and slew the Greek who resented this national affront; and an armed vessel, after refusing to salute the palace, was guilty of some acts of piracy in the Euxine. These outrages demanded punishment, and when impending over the offenders, their countrymen threatened to support their cause; but the large and open village of Galata was instantly surrounded by the imperial troops; till, in the moment of the assault, the prostrate Genoese implored the clemency of their sove-

reign. The defenceless situation, which secured their obedience, exposed them to the attack of their Venetian rivals. On the approach of their fleets, the Genoese, with their families and effects retired into the city: their empty habitations were reduced to ashes; and the feeble prince, who had viewed the destruction of his suburbs, expressed his resentment, not by arms, but by his ambassadors. This misfortune, however, was advantageous to the Genoese, who obtained, and imperceptibly abused, the dangerous license of surrounding Galata with a strong wall; of introducing into the ditch the waters of the sea; of erecting lofty turrets, and of mounting a train of military engines on the ramparts. The narrow bounds in which they had been circumscribed, were insufficient for the growing colony; every day they acquired some addition of landed property; and the adjacent hills were covered with their villas and castles, which they joined and protected by new fortifications.

The navigation and trade of the Euxine was the patrimony of the Greek emperors, who commanded the narrow entrance of the inland sea. In the reign of Paleologus, their prerogative was acknowledged by the Sultan of Egypt, who solicited and obtained the liberty of sending an annual ship for the purchase of slaves in Circassia and the lesser Tartary. The youths thus procured were transformed by education and discipline into the formidable Mamalukes.*

* Bibars, Sultan of Egypt, himself a Tartar, but a devout Mussulman, obtained from the children of Zingis the permission to build a stately mosque in the capitol of the Crimea.

From the colony of Galata, the Genoese engaged with superior advantage in the lucrative trade of the Black Sea; and their industry supplied the Greeks with fish, salt and corn. The waters of the Oxus, the Caspian, the Volga and the Don, opened a safe but laborious passage for the gems and spices of India; and, after three months march, the caravans of Carizme met the Italian vessels in the harbors of the Crimea.

These various branches of trade were monopolised by the diligence and power of the Genoese. Their rivals of Venice were forcibly expelled; the natives were awed by the castles and cities, which arose on the foundations of the humble factories; and their principal establishment of Kaffa, was besieged without effect by the Tartar powers. In the harbor of Kaffa four hundred sail of vessels were often seen to enter, and depart laden, within a month.

Destitute of a navy, the Greeks were oppressed by these haughty merchants, who had it in their power to feed or famish Constantinople, according to their interest. Not satisfied with the numerous indulgences extended to them by the imperial government, they proceeded to usurp the customs, the fishery, and even the toll, of the Bosporus; and while they derived from these sources a revenue of two hundred thousand pieces of gold, a remnant of thirty thousand was reluctantly allowed to the emperor. The colony of Galata acted, in peace and war, as an independent state; and forgot they were the vassals of a prince, whose bounteous

largesses had rendered them insolent, rather than secured their allegiance.

These usurpations, which were encouraged by the weakness of the elder Andronicus, and by the civil wars that afflicted his age and the minority of his grandson, at last shook the throne of Cantacuzene, and betrayed the debility of the Greek empire. Cantacuzene, an imperial domestic, had saved the younger Andronicus from the power of his grandfather; after six years of civil war, brought him back in triumph to the palace of Constantinople, and during his reign ruled the emperor and the empire.

In his testament, Andronicus named him the guardian of his son and regent of the empire. But Ann of Savoy, the surviving consort of Andronicus, was induced by the intrigues of the admiral Apocaucus, and the patriarch John of Apri, to assert the tutelage of her son. By this powerful confederacy Cantacuzene was assaulted, at first with clandestine, at length with open arms.

In his absence on the public service, he was accused of treason; proscribed as an enemy of the church and state; and delivered, with all his adherents, to the sword of justice, the vengeance of the people and the power of the devil; his fortunes were confiscated; his aged mother was cast into prison; all his just services were buried in oblivion; and he was driven by injustice, to usurp the throne of the Eastern empire. He was crowned at Constantinople in 1347. The talents of Cantacuzene were employed to the ruin, rather than the restora-

tion of the empire; and after his domestic victory over his numerous personal enemies, he was, in 1348, reduced to the ignominious trial, whether the Greeks or his Genoese subjects, should reign in Constantinople.

The merchants of Galata were offended by his refusal of some contiguous lands, some commanding heights, which they proposed to cover with new fortifications; and in the absence of the emperor, who was detained at Demotica by sickness, they ventured to brave the debility of a female reign. A Byzantine vessel, which had presumed to fish at the mouth of the harbor, was sunk by these audacious strangers, and the fishermen were murdered. Instead of suing for pardon, the Genoese demanded satisfaction; required, in an haughty strain, that the Greeks should renounce the exercise of navigation; and encountered with arms the first sallies of popular indignation. They instantly occupied the debateable land; and by the labour of a whole people, of either sex, and every age, the wall was raised, and the ditch was sunk, with incredible speed. At the same time, they attacked and sunk two Byzantine gallies; while the three others, the remainder of the imperial navy, escaped from their hands: the habitations without the gates of Constantinople, or along the shore, were pillaged and destroyed; and the care of the regent, of the empress Irene, was confined to the preservation of the city. The return of Cantacuzene dispelled the public consternation: the emperor inclined to peaceful counsels; but he yielded to the obstina-

cy of his enemies, who rejected all reasonable terms, and to the ardour of his subjects. Yet they reluctantly paid the taxes that he imposed for the construction of ships, and the expenses of the war; and as the two nations were masters, the one of the land, the other of the sea, Constantinople and Galata were pressed by the evils of a mutual siege. The merchants of the colony, who had believed that a few days would terminate the war, began to murmur at their losses; the succours from their mother-country were delayed by the factions of Genoa; and the most cautious embraced the opportunity of a Rhodian vessel, to remove their families and effects from the scene of hostility.

In the spring of 1349, the Byzantine fleet consisting of seven gallies and a train of smaller vessels, issued from the mouth of the harbor, and steered in a single line along the shore of Galata; unskilfully presenting their sides to the beaks of the adverse squadron. The crews were composed of peasants and mechanics; nor was their ignorance compensated by the native courage of barbarians: the winds were strong, the waves were rough; and no sooner did the Greeks perceive a distant and inactive enemy, than they leaped headlong into the sea, from a doubtful to an inevitable peril. The troops that marched to the attack of Galata, were struck at the same moment with a similar panic; and the Genoese were astonished and almost ashamed of their double victory. Their triumphant vessels, crowned with flowers, and dragging after them the captured gallies, repeatedly

passed and repassed before the palace; the only virtue of the emperor was patience; and the hope of revenge his sole consolation. Yet the distress of both parties interposed a temporary agreement; and the shame of the empire was disguised by a thin veil of dignity and power. Summoning the chiefs of the colony, Cantacuzene affected to despise the trivial object of the debate; and after a mild reproof, most liberally granted the lands, which had been previously resigned to the seeming custody of his officers.

The emperor was soon solicited to violate the treaty, and to join his arms with the Venetians, the perpetual enemies of Genoa and her colonies. While he compared the reasons of peace and war, his moderation was provoked by a wanton insult of the inhabitants of Galata, who discharged from their ramparts, a large stone that fell in the midst of Constantinople. On his just complaint, they coldly blamed the imprudence of their engineer; but the next day the insult was repeated, and they exulted in a second proof, that the imperial city was not beyond the reach of their artillery. Cantacuzene instantly signed his treaty with the Venetians; but the weight of the Roman empire was scarcely felt in the balance of these opulent and powerful republics. From the straits of Gibralter to the mouth of the Tanais, their fleets encountered each other with various success; and a memorable battle was fought in the narrow sea, in 1352, under the walls of Constantinople.

The Venetians with their allies the Catalans, had the advantage of number; and their fleet, with the poor addition of eight Byzantine gallies, amounted to seventy five sail; the Genoese did not exceed sixty four; but their ships of war were distinguished by the superiority of their size and strength. The names and families of their naval commanders, Pisani and Doria, are illustrious in the annals of their country; but the personal merit of the former was eclipsed by the fame and abilities of his rival.

They engaged in tempestuous weather; and the tumultuary conflict was continued from the dawn to the extinction of light.

The enemies of the Genoese applauded their prowess; the friends of the Venetians were dissatisfied with their behaviour. On the separation of the fleets, the event might appear doubtful; but the thirteen Genoese gallies, that had been sunk or taken, were compensated by a double number of the allies; of fourteen Venetians, ten Catalans and two Greeks. Pisani confessed his defeat, by retiring into a fortified harbor, from whence, under the pretext of the orders of the senate, he steered with a broken and flying squadron, for the Isle of Candia, and abandoned to his rivals the sovereignty of the sea.

Deserted by their friends, the Greeks were incapable of resistance; and three months after the battle, the emperor Cantacuzene solicited and subscribed a treaty, which forever banished the Venetians and Catalans, and granted to the Genoese

a monopoly of trade, and almost a right of dominion.

The seat of the Roman empire might soon have sunk into a province of Genoa, if the ambition of the republic had not been checked by the ruin of her freedom and naval power. A long contest of one hundred and thirty years was determined by the ultimate triumph of Venice. Yet the spirit of commerce survived that of conquest, and the colony of Galata still awed the capitol, and navigated the Euxine, in defiance of their successful rivals.

Tamerlane the Tartar conquerer, having taken and destroyed Astrakan and Azof, in the year 1395, the Venetians and Genoese could no longer carry on their India trade by that route, and endeavoured to re-establish it, by the way of Bagdad, to Trebisond and thence to Sevastipolis, where the Genoese established consuls.

In 1441, the Crimea was formed into a separate government, under the dominion of the Tartars. The founder of the Tartar-Crimean state was Mengly Gheray, a descendant of the Tchingises. When very young, he had been taken prisoner in an engagement, by the Genoese, who caused him to be well educated, and in all respects, treated like a prince. On being driven to extremities by the Tartars, young Mengly was sent with some of the principal Genoese to Constantinople, for the purpose of inducing Mahomet II. to take them under his protection. The Sultan shewed great affection to Mengly, and when the Tartars petitioned Mahomet to give them a Khan of their own, he ap-

pointed this young prince, who in turn, acknowledged the supremacy of the Porte.

This state of dependence not being agreeable to the Tartars, Mengly was obliged, not long after his arrival in the Crimea, to apply to the Turkish government for assistance, with which he not only reduced the Tartars to obedience, in 1475, but annihilated the Genoese authority; still they were permitted to remain, as merchants, in the peninsula. Elated with his conquests, Mengly had it in contemplation to withdraw himself entirely from the power of the Porte, when the Turks sent garrisons to the principal towns, and reduced the Crimea to a dependence, which, from that period, sunk into a complete subjugation; and after the year 1575 the Genoese lost all their influence and trade, in consequence of the occupation of Kaffa, Soudak, Balaclava and Tana, by the Turkish troops.

The fall of the Greek empire was a fatal blow to the Genoese. They were deprived of their valuable establishments at Galata, and excluded from the lucrative commerce of Constantinople. The maritime greatness of their Venetian rivals, gradually sunk under the increasing power of the Turks.

These two Italian republics, that had first revived the spirit of commerce in Europe, after the decline of the Roman empire, and for ages engrossed the principal trade of the Mediterranean, the Euxine and the East, were ultimately compelled to retire from those seas, which had been

whitened by their commerce, for more than five centuries. All their valuable possessions in the Morea, Levant, Archipelago and Crimea, were swallowed up in the Ottoman empire.

The Portuguese, in the mean while, having discovered the passage, round the Cape of Good Hope, to India, gave the final blow to their oriental trade, by which they had acquired such enormous wealth and power.

From the time Constantinople was taken by Mahomet II., nearly all the trade of the Black Sea was concentrated in that city, and the nations on its borders made subservient to the Ottoman Empire.

Not content with keeping strong garrisons in the forts of the Crimea, and setting up and deposing the Khans, at pleasure, the Turks shut up the entrance of the Black Sea to other nations.

Notwithstanding the Khans of the Crimea were much humbled and their power circumscribed, by the military garrisons, which were established by the Turks at Kaffa, Soudak, Cembolo or Balaclara and Tana, they were rather the allies, than the subjects of the Ottoman Porte, although the Sultan arrogated the right of nominating or refusing to recognise them, when chosen, unless his approbation was previously obtained.

When the sovereignty of the Crimea was obtained by Mengly Gheray, only a small part of the inhabitants were Tartars, but the wars in which he was engaged, against those upon the borders of the Volga, enabled him to bring into

his dominions several thousand of Nogais, whom he compelled to settle there. Being imitated by his successors, the Cuban and the territory lying between the Don and the Dneister, were peopled by Tartar prisoners. Commerce not being congenial to the feelings of these warlike hordes, whose only pursuits were war and plunder, the government of the Crimea became formidable to the Russians and Poles, who paid to the Khan, an annual tribute of 100,000 rix dollars, to preserve their respective countries from the predatory incursions of the Tartars, until the peace of Karlowitz.

The state of Lithuania, in its prosperity, had been extended to the shores of the Black Sea. In 1500, Bielgorod, now called Akerman, upon the banks of the Dneister, belonged to Lithuania. This town, by the navigation of the river, united the commerce of the Lithuanian territories, with the Black Sea; but these advantages were lost, when the Turks acquired the ascendancy on that sea. Countries, which before were rich, well cultivated and contained an industrious population, sunk into a state of apathy and poverty. The luxuriant province of Podolia became a desert, the beautiful prairies between the Dneiper and the Dneister barren wastes; and the immense plain, between the Dneiper and the Don, gradually assumed the same melancholy aspect.

When Peter the Great ascended the throne of Russia, he discovered that his empire was commercially separated from the rest of Europe.

Archangel was the only place, which carried on a trade with other nations, immediately, by sea; but as this port was situated at the northern extremity of the empire, only those provinces, in its immediate vicinity, participated in this commerce; that of all the others, with the adjacent countries, was very trifling. It therefore became highly important, that the navigation of the Baltic and the Black Sea, should be opened to the trade of his western and southern territories.

A quarrel with the Turks in 1694, unfolded to the Czar the prospect of realizing his views of aggrandisement on the Euxine, and in the following year, an army was marched to lay siege to Azof. The failure of the first attempt, to reduce the place, through want of ships to block up the harbor, coincided with his passion for navigation, in stimulating him to create a fleet. He immediately gave orders for the equipment of a flotilla; which was effected with so much celerity that during the next summer, his squadron appeared before Azof. The Turkish gallies stationed there were defeated, and the town surrendered. Proud of the conquest, he caused his army to make a triumphal entry into Moscow. He left orders for a large addition to his fleet. Four ships mounting from twenty four to sixty guns each, were built.

In the year 1699 he repaired to Azof, and accompained Ukrainzow, his ambassador extraordinary, on his way to Constantinople, as far as Kertchy, from whence he was to proceed by sea, to

the place of his destination. At Kertchy he found the Capudan Pacha, Hassan, with four frigates and nine gallies, who objected to the voyage of the ambassador, and required that he should go by land; but Peter compelled the Capudan Pacha to yield a free passage to his ship.

The Turks were extremely unwilling that the Russians should become acquainted with the navigation of the Black Sea.

The enterprising genius of the emperor excited the apprehensions of the Porte. The military establishments at Azof, and the aggrandizement of the Russian marine, were regarded with a jealous eye, as dangerous encroachments upon the Ottoman dominions.

The workmen in the ship yards, on the Don and at Woronetz, were actively employed, and in 1705, an eighty gun ship was launched in the presence of the emperor Peter. In 1709, he went to see three other ships launched, one of eighty, another of seventy, and the third of fifty guns.

But the most sanguine hopes of the indefatigable Peter, of participating in the commerce of the Black Sea, were blasted by the conclusion of the fatal treaty of peace, at the end of the campaign of 1711. After this event the rising navigation of Azof, was almost annihilated.

His attention was now turned entirely to the Baltic. The city of St. Petersburgh was founded in 1703, and the seat of empire transferred thither from Moscow, in the year 1714.

Having opened the Baltic Sea to his subjects, at one extremity of his dominions, he resolved to attempt the same with the Caspian and Black Seas. Kazan and Astrakan, had been conquered by Ivan the Terrible, in 1552 and 1554, who united the countries dependent on those cities, to the Russian empire. Some outrages having been committed on the south-eastern frontiers, by certain tribes of Persians and Tartars, he fitted out a fleet at Astrakan, and on the Volga, and marched a considerable body of troops, in 1722, to embark for an expedition into the Persian provinces, bordering on the Caspian Sea. His arms were victorious, and a treaty of peace was speedily concluded, by which a considerable territory was ceded to him, on the frontiers of Persia.

When the empress Anne ascended the throne, she opened a negociation with the Shah, and promised to restore to him the conquered countries, provided he would favour and promote the commerce of Russia, which was acceded to, and her merchants obtained very considerable privileges in the Persian dominions. Anne soon after united her forces to those of Austria, and attacked the territory of the Porte; but the Russians, though every where victorious, after conquering Moldavia, Azof and Otchakov, were induced to purchase peace, by restoring the captured places. The war, however, recommenced, and the Russian troops completely routed the Turks, near Stavutshaw, took the fortress of Khotyim, crossed the Pruth, made themselves masters of Jassy, the capital of Moldavia, and

compelled the whole of that province to submit to the empress. But Austria, having signed a treaty of pacification with the Porte at Belgrade, in 1739, Russia was obliged to conclude a peace.

By this treaty the exclusive navigation of the Black Sea was secured to the Turks. The fortifications of Azof were razed, and all the establishments which had been formed by Peter the Great, levelled to the ground.

The loss of Azof did not prevent the succeeding sovereign from endeavouring to re-establish the commerce and navigation of the Black Sea. In the year 1753 the empress Elizabeth, designated Temernikow, situated at the mouth of the Temernik, as the centre of a commercial establishment. An Ukase, was issued to encourage the Russians to settle at this place, and open a trade with Constantinople.

In 1756, a merchant and manufacturer of silk, belonging to the house of Basile, Morkarows, Chastatoff, and company, of Moscow, requested the exclusive privilege of the trade of Constantinople and the Mediterranean, which was granted, under the name of the "*Commercial Russian Company of Constantinople,*" and great privileges were allowed them; but they had not all the success which had been anticipated, as the jealous and suspicious Turks, opposed their various efforts to navigate the Black Sea, and the object was ultimately abandoned.

The only place of trade, which Russia then possessed near that sea, was the Cossack city of Tscher-

chaskoy, upon the river Don, where assembled Armenians, Greeks, Jews, Turks, Russians, Cossacks, Persians and Tartars, who reciprocally exchanged and sold their various articles of merchandise.

The treaty of Belgrade between Russia and the Porte, was observed by both parties for twenty nine years. After that period, new difficulties arose.

The Porte pretended that the interference of Russia, in the choice of Augustus III. king of Poland, and taking too active a part in the affairs of that nation, was against the spirit of existing treaties; that notwithstanding their tenor she had sent a large army into Poland, to compel the people to elect Count Poniatofsky as the new sovereign, and continued to deprive that nation of its liberties; that another body of troops followed by a heavy train of artillery, had penetrated into the Ottoman territories, where they had committed great ravages, and slain in the Tartar town of Baltu, more than a thousand of the inhabitants, sparing neither men, women, nor children.

The explanations, which were given by the Russian Court, upon these various points, were not sufficient to satisfy that of Constantinople.

On the first of October 1768, Mr. Obreskoi, the Russian ambassador, was arrested with a part of his suite, and confined in the castle of the Seven-towers. The reis offendi delivered to the foreign ministers, a manifesto, by which the Grand Seignor declared war against Russia. The Turks, at the same time announced that they were about to open the cam-

paign with an army of 500,000 men. Catharine II. had anticipated a war, and extensive arrangements had been made to meet that event.

The war was prosecuted with great vigour and various success. During the campaign of 1771, prince Dolgorucky forced the lines of Perecop and made himself master of the Crimea. The Khan, to avoid falling into the power of the conqueror, retired into the dependencies of Turkey, when the prince immediately caused a new Khan to be elected; but he soon detached himself from the Russians.

In the year 1772, while the plenipotentiaries of Catharine II. and the Porte were endeavouring to negociate a peace, at the congress of Fokshiani, the Russians concluded a treaty, with Sahim Gheray, the new Khan of the Crimea, by which he declared himself under the protection of the empress and ceded to her, the forts of Kertchy and Yenikale, which commanded the straits of Kaffa.

The numerous military and naval victories obtained by the Russians, on the frontiers of Turkey, in the Crimea, on the Mediterranean and Euxine, during six campaigns, at last compelled the Porte to sue for peace. The plenipotentiaries met at Kutshuk-Kainardshi, in Bulgaria, and the preliminaries of the treaty were signed by Marshall Romantzof and the Kiaya of the Grand Vizier, on the twenty first of July 1774. By this treaty, the Turks were compelled to make great concessions; Russia obtained the free navigation of the Euxine and all the Ottoman seas, together with the passage

of the Dardanelles; on condition, however, that she should never have more than one armed vessel in the sea of Constantinople. The tract of land lying between the Bag, and Dnieper, was added to the empire. Azof, Taganrock, Kertchy, and Kinburn, were retained, and the Crimea was to be acknowledged as an independent nation, under the government of the Khan, Sahim Gheray.

The independence of the Crimea was most severely felt by the Turks. They foresaw that Catharine II. was only desirous of this event, that she might be the better enabled to render this peninsula subservient to her extensive commercial views, and prevent the Turks from ever again usurping the control of the Black Sea.

From the year 1575 to 1774, a period of two hundred years, this sea had been hermetically sealed up, and effaced from the annals of commerce, among christian nations. The Turks navigated it exclusively; but although Constantinople received most of the necessary articles, for the consumption of its inhabitants, from its borders, the once flourishing ports of the Crimea and Tamen were completely ruined, as their extensive trade was dependent upon that of the Archipelago and Mediterranean, which the enterprising merchants of Genoa and Venice had principally engrossed. The Crimea was the grand theatre of their maritime industry, and had arisen to its greatest splendor, when they were excluded from the Black Sea.

The re-establishment of this navigation, is a remarkable event in modern history. It has produced an important revolution in the commerce of the world.

The project of restoring to commerce its primitive course, through the Black Sea, was first conceived by Peter the Great, but Catharine II. received the glory of effecting this object. Europe beheld in the list of her states, a new sovereign prince, and a mahometan, who united with christians to break the naval sceptre of the Ottoman empire.

The commerce of the Euxine, and the mart of the Levant, opened to Russia a source of immense riches. No longer compelled to defend its southern borders, by the usual expensive lines of fortresses and troops, against the Tartars, or the old tribute-like presents, she was now become a friendly and protecting ally.

To encourage the trade of the Black Sea, Catharine II. granted the use of ships *freight free* to Gasetrikoy, a Russian merchant; furnished him a capital, and promised to make good all his losses, leaving the whole profits, which might accrue, entirely to himself. Ten vessels laden with wine, having on board christian emigrants, from the Morea, passed the Dardanelles, to proceed to the Russian settlements, on the borders of the Sea of Azof.

The conquests of Prince Dolgorucky, had induced a great number of the Tartar inhabitants, to favor the Russians, but the Khan having made

a more ostentatious display of his attachment, and even vassalage, than was suited to his character, or the people whom he governed, they became indignant, and at last their discontents produced a revolution in 1781. They declared that they preferred a connexion with the Ottomans, with whom they had been so long united, who were of the same religion, and in conjunction with whom, they had shared so much glory and spoil in war, to their new alliance, with a christian nation, which they had been in the habit of regarding with enmity or contempt. The discontented party was encouraged and supported by the Tartars of the Kuban, the Nogays, and some of the more distant tribes. The Turkish subjects in the provinces of Anatolia, were also allowed to unite with them, as the Grand Seignor was desirous of destroying the influence of Russia in the Crimea. Sahim Gheray was deposed and Doulet Gheray, who was devoted to the Turks, was elected. A civil war ensued, in which the party of Sahim was overpowered. Russia sent an army into the Crimea to support him against the rebels. Doulet was defeated and obliged to abandon the peninsula; and his adherents were dispersed or subdued.

Sahim was immediately re-elected Khan. The Khan had always been the eldest male of the Gheray family, of the race of Tschingis Khan, the Mongole conqueror, unless debarred from the succession, by some natural incapacity, or the interference of the people, which occasional-

ly happened, conferring their choice on another, but constantly one of the Gheray dynasty, being the eldest and nearest to the right line of descent. In process of time, this family became very numerous, and it was difficult to determine whose claim was the most valid; so that at last the Khans were wholly elective.

Catharine was very solicitous to extend her commerce into the Mediterranean, from her possessions in the vicinity of the Black Sea, and held out great inducements, not only to her own subjects, but to foreigners generally, and particularly to the inhabitants of Greece and the islands in the Archipelago, to establish themselves at the different ports within her dominions. She caused the foundation of the city of Cherson to be laid, in 1778, on the shores of the Dnieper, and Potemkin was directed to superintend its erection, who accelerated the works with incredible activity. Before the year 1783, it contained forty thousand inhabitants, and from its yards were launched, not only vessels for commerce, but ships of the line, destined to protect them, and strike terror into the Ottoman empire.

Since the peace of 1774, Turkey had discovered great uneasiness at the efforts of Russia, to obtain ascendancy on the Black Sea. These last measures were particularly obnoxious to the Porte, and war appeared inevitable; but by the intervention of France and Austria, terms of pacification were ultimately agreed upon, and a commercial treaty concluded at Constantinople the 10th of June 1783,

by which the advantages secured to Russia, by the treaty of Kainardski, were recognised and others granted. Consuls were allowed to be established in the provinces of Walachia, Moldavia and Bessarabia; and that the Porte should not in future, under any pretence, intermeddle in the affairs of the Tartars. The subjects of Russia were freely to pass the Dardanelles; enter all the states of Turkey, without exception, for the purposes of trade, and navigate not only the Danube, but several other rivers.

The vessels were not to be detained, visited, or subjected to any dues for passing the canal of Constantinople.

As early as 1780, Count de Saint Priest, the minister of France at the Ottoman court, being satisfied that an advantageous trade could be opened between the Russian ports in the Black Sea, and those of France on the Mediterranean, requested one of his countrymen, by the name of Antoine Antoine,* who had resided ten years at Constantinople as a merchant, to prepare a memoir on the subject. Mr. Stochiew, the Russian ambassador, being equally solicitous that the government of France should be well informed, used his influence to induce Mr. Antoine to comply with the wishes of Count St. Priest, and offered him every possible assistance, which it was in his power to extend.

* He was made a nobleman for his services, and received the title of Baron of St. Joseph, and is now Mayor of Marseilles.

The information contained in the able communication which this distinguished merchant presented to the ambassadors of France and Russia, was considered of such consequence, that they immediately recommended to their respective courts, that Mr. Antoine should be authorised to make a tour from Constantinople to St. Petersburgh, and from thence to Paris, and lay before the two governments, the result of his observations, in relation to the advantages which might accrue, from the establishment of French commercial houses at Cherson.

Marshall Castries, and the Count de Vergennes, highly approved of this plan, and instructed Count St. Priest to send Mr Antoine through Poland to the capital of Russia, at the expense of the King.

Mr. Stachiew furnished him with the necessary passports; granted him permission to take passage in any Russian ship bound to the Crimea, and specially recommended him to the notice of General Hannibal, governor of Cherson. Receiving the letters from Count St. Priest for prince Potemkin, the governors of the different provinces through which he would pass, and the Marquis de Verac, minister plenipotentiary of France at the Russian court, explanatory of the object of his journey, Mr. Antoine left Constantinople, on the tenth of April, 1781, and returned from St. Petersburgh to Paris in September, 1782. He obtained permission to establish a commercial house at Cherson, and was promised the protection of a Russian passport and flag, to enter the Black Sea.

He laid before the Marshall Castries and the Count de Vergennes, copies of the memoirs which he had presented to the Empress of Russia and the king of Poland, and a succinct account of his tour.

The commercial and political advantages, which France would derive from the extension of her commerce to the Black Sea, was clearly elucidated, and Mr. Antoine was assured that every encouragement and facility should be afforded, to carry into execution such measures as he might deem most expedient to effect this object.

Great privileges being secured to this merchant, a brisk trade immediately commenced, between Marseilles and the ports of Russia, on the Euxine and sea of Azof.

Although Count St. Priest had resided at Constantinople from 1768 to 1784, a period of sixteen years, he was not able to gain permission for the French flag to pass into the Black Sea.

The Turks were in hopes that they should ultimately be enabled to drive the Russians from the Crimea, and again acquire the dominion of a sea, which they still considered as belonging exclusively to themselves, and which they did not wish any other nation to navigate. The court were also apprehensive that extending those privileges to other commercial nations, which by force of arms, Russia and Austria had acquired, would occasion a rebellion.

Sahim Gheray, the Khan of the Crimea, becoming fond of the novelties, and delighted with the arts of Europe, soon began to despise the man-

ners of his country. Indulging his inclination for the enjoyments of voluptuousness and the refinements of luxury, the Tartars loudly condemned his manner of life and his attachment to Russia; but as he governed them with gentleness and equity, they ascribed his deviations from their ancient customs, rather to the Christians, than to himself.

At length, however, serious disturbances arose, and he found many of his own family had become his enemies, and during the year 1783, two of his brothers, one of whom named Bay Gheray, the governor of the Kuban, made an attempt to surprise him in the city of Kaffa, where he resided, and forced him to fly to Taganrock for shelter.

A Russian army immediately marched to his relief, under the command of Prince Potemkin. Bay Gheray finding it impossible to contend with such a powerful army, voluntarily divested himself of the power which he had usurped. Sahim entered again the Crimea and having called together the Tartar chiefs he observed,—" You see before you my two brothers and myself: which of us will you have to govern you? name him freely; I will subscribe to your choice." They swore they would have none but Sahim Gheray.

In consequence of the difficulties which had constantly arose in the Crimea, and finding it of the utmost consequence to Russia to possess this territory, Catharine determined to attach it to her empire, and measures were immediately taken to effect this important object. The Khan abdicated his throne and transferred his dominions to the

empress. At the same time Souvarof subdued the Tartars of Kuban and the Budziacs, while another powerful army under Potemkin, extended the conquests of Russia over the isle of Tamen, part of the mountains of Caucasus, and towards the borders of Georgia and Armenia.

As a justification of her conduct to the world, Catharine published an elaborate manifesto, which was answered by the Porte, in a most able manner. Extensive preparations for war were made on both sides. Seventy thousand men under the orders of prince Potemkin were assembled on the frontiers of the Crimea. Prince Repnin was at the head of forty thousand to aid the former. Marshall Romantzof with a third army had his general quarters at Kiow. The squadrons of the Euxine were armed, and ten sail of the line were waiting the signal for proceeding from the Baltic to the Mediterranean.

The Grand Seignor had drawn great bodies of his Asiatic troops into Europe, which united to the forces on the frontiers, constituted an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men.

The Capudan Pacha had formed a marine, on the Euxine, superior to the Russian naval force, in that quarter, and had likewise a considerable fleet for the Archipelago and Mediterranean service.

The court of London was very solicitous that the Turks should commence hostilities, but the tremendous preparations of Russia forbade any

hopes of success, and instead of urging them to battle, inclined them to listen to negociations.

Austria and France acted as mediators, and a new treaty was signed at Constantinople between the Russian plenipotentiary Bulgakof, and the minister of the Grand Seignor, in the year 1784; by which the Empress retained the sovereignty of the Crimea, of the isle of Tamen, and a principal part of the Kuban; and the Turks acknowledged the right which she pretended incontestibly to have, to the dominion of the Euxine and to the passage of the Dardanelles. Catharine thus acquired a vast territory containing a million and a half of subjects.

The empress restored their ancient names to the Crimea and to the Kuban. The former was called Taurida and the other Caucasus. Desirous of augmenting the population of these newly acquired provinces, she published several ukases, during the years 1784 and 5, inviting foreigners to come and settle in those countries. She promised them that protection which she habitually granted to all strangers, who came, either to carry on commerce, or to exert their industry in any manner, within her dominions. Every one was to enjoy the free exercise of the religion of his fathers; and such as chose to be naturalized, were to be admitted to all the rights of native subjects. They were to be exempted from all duties to the crown, during six years, and if at the expiration of that time, they signified their intentions to leave her dominions, they were at liberty to go.

As soon as the treaty between Turkey and Russia was concluded, the court of Vienna demanded of the Porte, that the same commercial concessions and privileges which had been granted to Russia, should be extended to Austria, which was immediately acceded to, in conformity to the eighth article of the treaty of Belgrade.

To encourage his subjects to become competitors on this new commercial theatre, the emperor Joseph II. reduced the export duties on all merchandise manufactured within his hereditary states, destined for Russia or Turkey, and ports were established, for the special convenience of the merchants, who were concerned in this trade.

There never having been any commercial treaty between Russia and France, since that concluded by the Cardinal Richelieu in 1626, with the Czar Michael, Mr. Segur was sent to the court of St Petersburgh in the year 1786, to endeavour to negociate one, which should secure to France a more extensive trade, in the Russian ports of the Black Sea, which he effected on the eleventh of September, 1787.

By this treaty the same privileges were secured to the merchants of France, which were enjoyed by the subjects of the most favoured nation.

On the 8th of January, 1787, the empress left St. Petersburgh to visit Cherson and the Crimea, in order to be there crowned sovereign of these new conquests, accompanied by a numerous suite, in which were the ambassadors of Austria and France and the English envoy.

At Kanief she was joined by the king of Poland, and Joseph II. emperor of Austria, met her at Kaidak.

She made her entry with great pomp into Bakscisarai or Bacca-Serai, and lodged, together with her suite, in the palace of the Khan. This was once the chief city of the Crimea and residence of the Khans.

At Cherson, a sixty six gun ship and a frigate of forty four guns were launched in her presence.

Sahim Gheray was not in the Crimea when the empress visited that peninsula. He had been retained for sometime by Potemkin, at Cherson and was afterwards sent to Kaluga. From thence he retired into Moldavia where he was seized by the Turks and transported to the isle of Rhodes. There he took refuge in the house of the French consul Mille, of whom the Turks immediately demanded his surrender, which being refused, they seized the opportunity of his momentary absence, rushed into the house and strangled the unfortunate Khan.

The Divan of Constantinople shewed strong symptoms of uneasiness at this magnificent tour of Catharine, and were apprehensive that it had for its object views beyond those of a mere visit to the Crimea.

The English ambassador and the Prussian envoy increased the alarms of the Ottoman Court, by their insinuations, that the journey of the emperor of Austria, to Cherson, to meet the empress, was for the maturation of plans, of a nature, which would

prove ruinous to Turkey. The commercial treaty between Great Britain and Russia had expired, and the empress demanding that the principles of the armed neutrality should be recognised, on its renewal, the negociations were broken off. The court of St. James was induced to urge the Porte to commence hostilities from motives of interest. England was unwilling that Russia should possess maritime advantages, which were not enjoyed by her own subjects, and beheld with resentment the great benefit which France would derive from the convention, secretly concluded with Catharine II.

The commerce of the Black Sea had rapidly increased; it was navigated by more than two hundred sail of Russian and Austrian vessels. France was endeavouring to obtain permission for her flag to pass the Bosporus of Thrace, while a great number of her vessels were trading under the flags and passports of Russia and Austria. The ships of Austria were laden in the Danube with the products of Hungary, which they transported to Marseilles. The king of Naples was permitted to have a consul reside at Cherson. The merchants of Genoa, Leghorn, and Trieste, had an extensive trade in the Black Sea, under the flags of Austria and Russia. It was found, from experience, that the naval munitions which were exported from Riga and St. Petersburgh, could be procured from the south of Russia, by the way of the Black Sea, much easier, in a shorter time, and at less expense, which produced a revolution in commerce highly beneficial to Russia,

and all the European ports in the Mediterranean, but of fatal tendency to Great Britain and Prussia.

England, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, Prussia, and all the maritime cities of the Baltic, beheld with considerable inquietude, and even with jealousy, the advantages which Russia, Poland, Austria, Spain, and particularly France, would receive from the commerce of the Black Sea. It was evident, that while Russia was thus extending her empire, and increasing her marine on the borders of that sea, the power of Turkey would be diminished, and ultimately present but a feeble barrier to the gigantic schemes of the empress.

The throne of Byzantum once usurped, and the keys of the Hellespont held by a Russian prince, presented a most alarming spectacle for the contemplation of the various powers of Europe.

It was evident if war was declared by Turkey, that the trade of Russia between the Black Sea and Mediterranean would be destroyed; but England anticipated more important consequences from such an event. If the Turks were victorious, they would again possess the Crimea, and become masters of all the ports on the Black Sea, which would enable them once more to seal up the Dardanelles, and thus annihilate the rising commerce of Russia and Austria, dependent upon a free passage of these straits.

Prussia participated in the hopes of the court of London, for she was apprehensive of the consequences of this new channel of commerce, for the products of Russia, Germany, and Poland, upon the ports of Elbing, Konigsburg, and Dantzic.

While the empress was at Cherson, four Turkish ships of the line came and anchored at the mouth of the Borysthenes, to collect information and observe her movements.

Bulgakof, minister of Russia at Constantinople, visited Catharine at Cherson, and informed her of the unfriendly disposition of the Porte. The discovery of a correspondence between that minister and Ibrahim-Bey one of the rulers of Egypt; the conduct of the Russian consuls in Moldavia and other provinces; the troubles which had raged in Georgia for two years; alleged violations of subsisting treaties, in relation to granting passports and flags for the vessels of other nations to pass the Dardanelles; and the warlike attitude of Russia on the frontiers of Turkey, were loudly complained of, and without waiting for such explanations or satisfaction as Russia might be able to give, war was declared in Constantinople on the eighteenth of August 1787, and Mr. Bulgakof shut up in the castle of the seven towers.

The Grand Vizier was invested with dictatorial powers, to enable him to provide instantly for any sudden exigencies that might occur, and to conduct the various operations of the war with greater despatch and effect. Eighty thousand men were ordered to march, to cover Otchacov, situated on the right bank of the Borysthenes, opposite the Russian garrison of Kinburn. A formidable army advanced to the shores of the Danube, where the Grand Vizier was in readiness to unfurl the standard of Mahomet. A squadron of sixteen ships of

the line, eight frigates and several gallies entered the Euxine, under the command of the Capudan Pacha, Gazi-Hassan.

Catharine had expected a declaration of war, and was ready with her fleets and armies; and Joseph II. emperor of Germany sent eighty thousand Austrians to her assistance.

She had already a great force in the Kuban; detachments of her armies were on their march to the Crimea, and the country from Kaminick* to Balta was covered with her troops.

Prince Potemkin, commander in chief of all these forces, had under him Souvarof, Repnin, Kamenskoi, Kakofsky, and a number of other distinguished generals.

A fleet of twelve ships of the line, twelve frigates, and near two hundred gun boats was equipped in the ports of the Euxine, and powerful squadrons, under the command of admirals Kruse and Greig, were in readiness at Constadt, to sail for the Archipelago.

Two or three desperate and bloody engagements took place between the hostile armaments in the broad estuary of the Dnieper and the Bog. In all these, the Russians were successful.

The first conflict between the armies was before Kinburn, where general Souvarof commanded. The Pacha of Otchacov embarked six thousand men in small vessels, and landed them on the promontory before Kinburn, with the design

* In Russian Poland, Capital of Podolia.

of taking that fortress by surprise; but Souvarof made a sortie upon them, with fixed bayonet, and all the Turks were slain or driven into the sea.

General Taliesin and Tekely defeated the Tartars of the Kuban in several actions. Tamara made himself master of Georgia, and kept the Lesques in awe. In the mean time a vast army of 150,000 men, under the command of Prince Potemkin and Count Romantzof, appeared on the banks of the Bog, and beseiged Otchacov, which was taken by assault. This victory cost the Russians 12,000 men; 25,000 Turks were slain in the conflict, or put to the sword, and the town given up to plunder. Prince Potemkin took the Isle of Beresan; Prince Repnin drove the Turks from the borders of the Solska; Souvarof beat them at Fokshiani, and with the prince of Saxe-Coburgh, on the banks of the Rimniks.

Soon after he took possession of Tutukay, in Bulgaria. On this occasion, Souvarof sent the following laconic dispatch to the empress, "Slava Bogu! Slava vam! Tutukai uzala, I ya tam."*

The magnificent town of Galatsha, situated on the Danube, was reduced to ashes by General Kamenskoi. Ackerman, Khedseby, Bialgorod and Palenka, submitted to the arms of Potemkin; and Bender surrendered at discretion.

The Grand Vizier had entered the province of Walachia, in 1790, with an army of ninety thousand men, where he was attacked on the twenty-

* Glory to God! Glory to you! Tutukay is taken, and I am there.

second of September, by the combined forces of Austria and Russia, amounting to only 30,000, under the prince of Saxe-Coburgh and General Souvarof, who gained a most signal victory. The Turks had seven thousand killed. The whole camp as it stood, including the Grand Vizier's tents and equipage, fell into the hands of the victors: three hundred camels, four hundred oxen, five thousand loaded waggons, eight thousand tents, six mortars, seventeen pieces of heavy cannon, sixty four field pieces, one hundred standards, with a prodigious quantity of ammunition and stores, were among the spoils and trophies of victory.

Ismail had been besieged seven months when Prince Potemkin sent orders to Souvarof, to take it within *three days*. He drew up his forces on the third day, and said to them; "my brothers, no quarters! provisions are dear!" and immediately began the assault. He was twice repulsed with great loss. The third attempt succeeded with the loss of fifteen thousand men. Thirty thousand Turks were put to the sword, and the city given up to plunder. The General wrote only these words to the empress:

"The haughty Ismail is at your feet."

Elated with her successes, Catharine did not disguise that she intended to drive the Turks out of Europe, plant her eagles on the walls of the Seraglio, and place her grandson, the Grand Duke Constantine, upon the throne of the Cæsars.

In consequence of the extreme severity with which the Greeks had been treated by the Turks, they sent a deputation to St. Petersburgh, to inform Catharine that they had taken up arms against the enemy of the christian name, and agreed to furnish an army to aid her in the war against the Turks. The destruction of the Ottoman empire appeared inevitable: but the ambition of the empress having nearly involved her in a war with England and Prussia; and Leopold, who had succeeded the emperor Joseph, having concluded a separate peace with the Porte, she began to perceive the necessity of terminating the contest; but too proud to sue for an armistice, her armies continued fighting. Kutusof beat the combined troops of the Turks and Tartars at Babada,* in the month of May, 1791. In July, Prince Repnin at the head of twenty five thousand men, entirely routed seventy thousand Ottomans, whom he engaged not far from Matzin: Gudovitch made himself master of the fortresses of Sudyuk-kaly, and Anapa, on the frontiers of the Crimea and the Cuban, where he took fourteen thousand prisoners. After much difficulty, an accommodation having been agreed upon between Russia, the courts of Berlin, London and the Hague, the latter powers agreed to propose to the Porte the terms on which the empress was willing to negociate a peace, and declared that if the Turks would not accept of those

* Babada is in Bulgaria, on the right bank of the Danube.

conditions, they would abandon their cause, and leave them to prosecute alone the war against Russia.

A congress was at length assembled at Galatch,* where the preliminaries of peace were signed the ninth of January, 1792, by prince Repnin and the Grand Vizier. The definitive treaty was concluded at Jassy, by which the treaties preceding the rupture, were to resume their entire force; the Dniester was made the boundaries of the two empires: the Porte guaranteed the kingdoms of Grusinia and Georgia and the adjacent countries; and was to endeavour to do the same in regard to Caucasus; and undertook to put a stop to the piracies of the Barbary Corsairs.

In this war, Russia lost 200,000 men, five ships of the line, seven frigates and eighty smaller vessels, and expended 200,000,000 rubles. Austria lost 130,000 men and expended 300,000,000 florins. The Turks lost 330,000 men, six ships of the line, four frigates and many other vessels and expended 250,000,000 piastres.

The commerce of the Black Sea again revived, and the utmost activity existed among the merchants of Russia, Austria, and France, to reap the advantages of a trade, which promised to be extremely lucrative.

They were stimulated to extend their enterprises by their respective sovereigns, and particu-

* Sometimes called Galalsha, Galaiz, Galatz and Galasi, in Moldavia, on a lake near the confluence of the Pruth and Danube.

larly Catharine II., who afforded to strangers every facility to enter her dominions, and granted those a variety of special privileges who chose to establish houses in the ports of Cherson, Sevastapol and Theodosia.

The value of the exports from the Russian ports in the Black Sea and sea of Azof, during the year 1793, amounted to 1,186,491 rubles. The total value of the exports in the year 1786 was only 519,811 rubles.

In the year 1783, the revolution in France having involved that nation in war with most of the European powers, the treaty with Russia was broken, and by an ukase, the empress prohibited the introduction of all kinds of merchandise fabricated in France into her empire; the treaty with England of 1766 was renewed; and thus were blasted all the hopes of France, which had been indulged for one hundred and sixty seven years, from a commercial alliance with Russia.

Catharine II. died on the ninth of November, 1796, and her son, Paul I., succeeded to the throne, who imposed new restrictions and higher duties on the imports and exports of Russia than formerly existed, without excepting the ports of the Black Sea, which, since the time of Peter the Great, had uniformly enjoyed more liberal privileges than the other commercial districts of the empire.

Although peace had been preserved between the Porte and France for such a number of years,

and during the war, which, since 1783 had convulsed all Europe, a rupture ultimately took place.

The cabinet of London, united with those of St. Petersburgh and Vienna, to induce the Porte to join with them, in the war against the Republic. The conquest of Corfu and other Ionian isles, by France; and apprehensive of the fate of Greece and the occupancy of Egypt by the armies of Buonaparte, induced the Grand Seignior to declare war on the thirteenth of September, 1798. Mr. Ruffin charge d'affairs of the French Republic, was confined in the castle of the seven towers, and all the consuls, merchants, mariners, and other French citizens, were arrested as prisoners of war and their property confiscated.

During this war the ports of the Black Sea only maintained a trade with a small number in the Levant. The Mediterranean being covered with fleets, pirates, and the corsairs of Barbary, the navigation became extremely hazardous to merchant vessels, and only a few neutral flags adventured upon it for a number of years, by which Austria derived some advantages.

On the decease of Paul, in March, 1801, his son Alexander ascended the throne of Russia, who pursued a more liberal policy than had marked the character of his father. He immediately promulgated several laws to encourage industry and commerce among his subjects. A treaty of peace was concluded with France on the eighth of October, 1801, by which the commercial relations of the two countries were re-established on

the same footing as they were before the war. Hostilities between England, France, and Turkey, ceased in 1802. The treaty of peace with England was signed at Amiens, the twenty fourth of March, and that with the Ottoman empire, the twenty fifth of June. In the treaty with Turkey it was stipulated, that France should enjoy in the states of the sublime Porte all the advantages which had been secured to other nations; that the merchant vessels of France should freely enter and navigate the Black Sea, and be protected against all kinds of piracy; that merchants and consuls should be allowed to form establishments and reside in all the territories of Turkey, bordering on the Black Sea; and enjoy all the rights, pri vileges and prerogatives, which were granted to those in the other parts of the Turkish dominions, before the war, in conformity to ancient treaties.

As soon as the treaty between France and Turkey was published, the English, Spaniards, Neapolitans, Prussians, Dutch, Ragusians, and the republic of the Seven Islands, successively demanded and obtained permission for their flags to enter the Black Sea. The English by secret treaties with the Turks in the reign of James I. and Charles, were granted the navigation of this sea. The Porte would not grant to the Spaniards, Neapolitans, and Dutch all the advantages which were enjoyed by Russia, Austria, and France, and particularly that of trading with and establishing consuls and commercial agents in the Turkish ports on the Black Sea.

Buonaparte sent commercial agents to the Asiatic ports of Heraclea, Sinope, and Trebisond; to those of Varna and Galatch in Europe, and to the Russian cities of Odessa and Cherson. They arrived at Constantinople at the close of the year 1802, with Marshal Brune, the ambassador of France.

Before the arrival of the ambassador, Mr. Ruffin, charge d'affairs of France, was released from the castle of the seven towers, and had obtained from the Porte, by virtue of the treaty of peace, a firman of the Grand Seignior, for the first vessel, bearing the flag of France, to enter the Black Sea, that had demanded the right of navigating it, for commercial purposes, since the cessation of hostilities.

Such was the emulation among the merchants of the various nations which had obtained this right, that during the year 1803, nine hundred and seventy seven sail of vessels entered at the different Russian ports, the cargoes of which amounted to 2,960,886 rubles, and nine hundred and fifty seven cleared, in which were exported merchandise of various kinds, valued at 4,924,050 rubles.

In consequence of the ascendancy which France had acquired at the Porte, toward the end of the year 1806, the Turks were involved in a war with Russia and England, which paralised the commerce of the Black Sea, until September, 1807.

On the commencement of hostilities between the Ottomans and Russia, admiral Duckworth, who then commanded a British fleet in the Medi-

terranean, was ordered to proceed to Constantinople, for the purpose of awing the Divan, and inducing the Grand Seignior to adopt a pacific system. On the nineteenth of February 1807, a favourable gale blowing from the south, the fleet effected the passage of the strait of the Dardanelles, under a heavy cannonade from the castles; and admiral Sir Sidney Smith destroyed a Turkish squadron, consisting of one ship of the line, four frigates, and several brigs and corvettes. In the evening of the twenty first, the fleet came to anchor at the distance of about eight miles from Constantinople. Captain Capel, in the Endymion, was sent to convey the ambassador's dispatches, by a flag of truce, to the Porte; but, from the state of the wind, and the strength of the current, he found it impracticable to approach within four miles of the city. At noon the next day, a minister came from the Porte, from whose expressions it appeared, that the Grand Seignior was desirous of peace; but an armed and highly exasperated populace overawed the government. Negociation, therefore, proved ineffectual; and the formidable preparations at Constantinople, under the directions of French engineers, as well as the strength of the current from the Bosporus, and the circuitous eddies of the port, which rendered it impossible to place the shipping for an attack on the city, without a commanding breeze, soon convinced the British admiral that nothing could be effected by force. On the first of March, the fleet weighed anchor, and on the following day repassed

the strait, under a tremendous fire from the castles, and from other forts which had been erected since their former passage. In going up, the British fleet had found the fire from the two inner castles extremely severe; but its effects on the shipping, in their return, shewed it to be doubly formidable; several of the stone shot weighed upwards of eight hundred pounds. By a singular kind of good fortune, however, all the ships effected the passage in safety, though not without considerable damage and loss of men. But the manner in which the Turks had employed so short an interval as ten days affords reason to believe, that if the British fleet had, by remaining a week longer before Constantinople, allowed them that time to complete their defences along the channel, its return would have been rendered impossible.

This expedition to Constantinople having involved Great Britain in open hostilities with the Porte, a small force under major-general Frazer, immediately sailed from Messina to Egypt, and took possession of Alexandria, which surrendered by capitulation without making any resistance. This success was soon followed by a train of disasters. The British troops having made two unsuccessful attacks on Rosetta, were overpowered by the numbers of the Turkish cavalry, and obliged to retreat. A considerable number of officers were made prisoners and sent to Cairo.

In the month of November following a convention took place; the Turks restored all the prisoners and the British troops evacuated Egypt.

The rapid successes of the French, during this and the preceding campaign, astonished and overawed the continent of Europe. After having made an almost entire conquest of the Prussian dominions, the emperor of France proceeded to the banks of the Vistula, where the Russian armies were assembled for the purpose of opposing his progress. In the bloody battles of Pultusk and Eylau, the fortunes of France and Russia seemed to be equally balanced; but at length the fatal day arrived which was to decide the mighty contest. On the fourteenth of June, the emperor Napolean defeated, with a dreadful carnage, the concentrated force of the Russians at Friedland. This sanguinary action was followed by a treaty of peace which was concluded at Tilsit between Russia and France, on the seventh of July, and a few days afterwards, between France and Prussia, on terms dictated by the victor.

The treaty of Tilsit being followed by a cessation of hostilities between Russia and Turkey, the trade of the Euxine was revived with increased energy. The fleets of Great Britain in the Mediterranean; the occupancy of Alexandria by General Frazer; and the revolt of Paswan Oglou, in Anatolia, having cut off the usual supplies from Egypt, the ports without the Dardanelles, and Asia Minor, occasioned great distress in Constantinople; and the moment the navigation of the Black Sea was thrown open, the wheat and other necessaries for the consumption of the immense population of the capital and its environs, even as far as Smyrna, were drawn from Odessa, Cherson, the Crimea, and Taganrock.

In 1807, the Russian Black Sea fleet consisted of twelve sail of the line, four frigates, seven brigs and cutters, and eighteen small craft; and the flotilla was composed of forty gun boats and eighty falconets.

Since 1807, the commerce of the Black Sea has continued to increase, in a manner unparalelled in any former period. The war between Russia and Turkey in 1813, occasioned only a temporary stagnation of business. During the succeeding years between thirteen and fourteen hundred vessels have annually departed from the single port of Odessa, which, in 1817, was declared a free port for thirty years, except for brandy, and other spirits, which are excluded until 1821. The emperor Alexander has recently visited his important territories on the coasts of the Euxine, which have been extended from the Dniester to the left bank of the Danube; and instead of the crescent waving on the batteries of the Kuban, it has retired before the Russian eagles, which are now planted on the borders of the ancient Bathys. No longer struggling against the hostility of nature, and the tribes of barbarians in the regions of Caucasus, Russia has descended into the plain of the Caspian and sweeping with her frontier the Persian provinces of Doughistan and Shirvan, she has raised a pillar of her empire at the mouth of the river Kur; and to complete her triumph, to remove all rivals and monopolize the commerce of the Caspian, the humbled Shah has been compelled to stipulate, that the imperial flag alone shall float over the waves of that Sea.

The sceptre of this mighty empire is wielded by a prince, who displays an ability equal to the task. During the quiescent state of Europe since the battle of Waterloo, and the return of Alexander from the capital of subjugated France, his active mind has been constantly engaged on subjects of the highest national importance. He has given to agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, an impetus, which is felt from the Baltic to the walls of China. The internal navigation from the White and Baltic, to the Caspian and Black Seas, has been improved by various great works, and others are in progress. Communications are open in all directions, even to Kamtschatka.

The India trade, which has been a primary object, and ever kept in view by all the sovereigns of Russia, since the first expedition of Peter the Great, to the shores of the Euxine, now promises to be extremely lucrative. Measures have been taken to render the intercourse between the southern territories of Russia and the Persian Gulf, the frontiers of China and Hindostan, safe and expeditious.

The good understanding which subsists between the Persian Sophi, and the Court of St. Petersburgh, is favourable to the prosecution of a trade, which is of the highest value to the commercial establishments on the shores of the Black Sea. The Tigris and Euphates, which have their sources in the gorges of Ararat and Taurus, offer a water communication with the Indian ocean, nearly the whole distance. The navigation of those celebrat-

ed rivers gave to "Nineveh, that great city," to "mighty Babylon" and magnificent Palmyra, Solomon's "Tadmor in the wilderness," their wealth, splendor, power, and immortality. Barbarians have rendered the delightful countries which they irrigate uncultivated deserts, and tumbled in the dust the proudest monuments of science and the arts; but the period of retribution is not far distant. Rising from the ruins of savage kingdoms, the colossal genius of Russia advances from the north; not like Brennus and Attila, wielding the sword of slaughter and the firebrand of devastation; but holding aloft the cross of Christ and the flambeau of science. As he approaches, the clouds of ignorance and superstition retire. The astonished Mussulman recollects with terror his sacrilegious outrages in the hallowed temples of God: the infidel despoilers of Egypt, Palestine, Byzantium, and Greece, tremble with dismay, as they mark his firm and resistless march. Ere long, standing on the "*everlasting foundations of Constantinople*," he will unfurl the imperial banner; and as the retiring multitude cast an averted look from the Asiatic shores of the Bosporus, they will behold this appalling figure, pointing with a stern and mandatory countenance to the barren deserts of Arabia, as the congenial regions of the routed Ottomans; there, where ignorance has fixed her eternal dwelling, is designated the future empire of the Mahometan dynasty.

TURKEY.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

Turkey in Europe is bounded, north by Austria and the river Danube, which separates it from Russia; east by the Black Sea, the Bosporus of Thrace, the Sea of Marmora, the Hellespont, and the Archipelago; south by the Mediterranean; and west by the Adriatic, Austrian Dalmatia, and Croatia.

It comprehends a number of ancient kingdoms and republics. The Morea is the ancient Peloponnesus; Rumelia and Macedonia comprise the rest of Greece and Thrace; Albania embraces the ancient kingdom of Epirus, Chaonia, and part of Illyricum.

The present population of European Turkey is not known with precision, as it is against the Mahometan religion to enumerate the inhabitants.

The different statistical writers vary in their estimates from five to nine millions. Much the largest number are Mahometans and Greeks; but

many Jews and different sects of christians, are scattered through the various provinces.

The general aspect of the country is mountainous; but interspersed with delightful valleys and plains, which render its appearance, in many parts, beautiful and picturesque. On the north west of Constantinople, is a level country, of great extent. From that metropolis to Adrianople, it is one continued plain. The shores of the Black Sea present many level districts. The territories towards the Danube, are generally level. Albania, the ancient Epirus, is almost wholly rugged and mountainous. Macedonia and Greece are delightfully variegated.

The soil exhibits all the variety that a country so extensive and of so diversified a surface, can be supposed to afford. In the level provinces of the north, it is rich and fertile; in the southern parts, it is frequently of a lighter nature. Fertility, however, may be considered as its general characteristic. The air is pure and the climate so temperate, as to admit of the culture of the vine in the most northern regions. It abounds in all the productions of Italy, Spain, and Portugal. The provinces towards the Danube afford excellent wheat; the middle and southern parts are chiefly distinguished by the prosperous culture of cotton, the vine and olive; but those countries are well adapted to the production of grain, fruits, and wines of the best quality.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

Turkey in Asia extends from the Archipelago to the confines of Persia, through a space of about 1050 miles from west to east. The boundaries towards Persia are the mountains of Ararat and Elevend. On the north, the Turkish territories are divided from Russia by the river Bathys. In the south, they extend to the junction of the Tygris and the Euphrates, which last river separates for a considerable interval, the Turkish possessions from those of the Arabs. The southern boundaries are obscure and uncertain. The distance from the Bathys to the frontiers of Arabia is scarcely less than 1100 miles. The population of Asiatic Turkey is estimated at 10,000,000.

This extensive territory comprises the countries, so well known in history, by the name of Asia Minor, Armenia, Mesopotamia, Chaldea and Syria.

No country in the world is more beautifully diversified with mountains, vallies and fertile plains. Chaldea, the supposed seat of paradise, and of undisputed celebrity, for the luxuriancy of its vegetation, is a level plain, watered by the various branches of the Tygris and the Euphrates.

Rhodes, Candia, and all the Islands in the Archipelago, belong to Turkey.

Some geographers, in opposition to the testimony of travellers, have considered Egypt as a Turkish province; whereas it was only occasionally tributary and subject to the military aristocracy of the Beys, until their power was extinguished by the French and British invasions; and that country is now governed by an independent chief. Some of the maritime Mahometan powers, have likewise assisted the Porte with ships in time of war; but they cannot be regarded as subjects to the Ottoman sceptre, although the states of Barbary, are extremely cautious not to commit any act which shall not quadrate with the views of the Sultan.

The Ottoman government is despotic. The supreme power is vested in the Sultan or Grand Seignior, who is the sole fountain of honour and office. His council of state is styled the Divan. The Turkish laws are contained in the Koran, and in the comments of approved and renowned doctors, which have acquired the force of laws.

The navy consists of about thirty ships of the line, with a proportionable number of smaller vessels; but on any great emergency, it can be increased to forty sail of the line, with frigates and galliots, amounting to two hundred ships of war, carrying 50,000 men.

At present the whole effective military force of the Ottoman empire cannot be estimated at above 150,000 men. The revenue is computed at about 32,000,000 of dollars, arising from the land tax, the customs, and the capitation tax on unbelievers; but it is impossible to say how far it might be augmented.

TERRITORIES OF TURKEY

ON THE

BLACK SEA.

The provinces of Turkey on the Black Sea, are Rumelia and Bulgaria, in Europe; and Anatolia and Amasia, in Asia.

RUMELIA.

Rumelia contains the southern district of ancient Thrace, Pœonia, and the northern part of classical Greece. It is bounded on the north by Bulgaria, east by the Black Sea, south by the sea of Marmora and the Archipelago, and west by Macedonia. The country for the most part is level, though interspersed with some large and remarkable mountains; the most considerable of which is mount Hæmus, dividing the country to the north of Bulgaria. The next in size is Rodope, celebrated by the ancient poets for the catastrophe of Orpheus. Mount Pangaeus separates Rumelia from Macedonia. The territories among the mountains are cold and barren, but those nearer the sea, pleasant and fertile, producing all

kinds of grain, particularly rice, which grows here in great plenty, and is remarkably good. The present inhabitants are Greeks, descendants of the Thracians, with a mixture of Turks.

The chief cities and sea ports in Rumelia, are Constantinople, Adrianople, Philipopoli, Ineada, Bourgos, Sizeboli, Tchingana, Ahiolu, and Messouri.

CONSTANTINOPLE, called by the Turks Stamboul or Istambol, the metropolis of the Ottoman empire, was built on the site and ruins of the ancient Byzantium, in Thrace, by the Roman emperor, Constantine the Great.

The ancient historians differ in their opinions, as to the period when Byzantium was founded.

Some of them assert that the foundations of this city were laid in the time of the Argonauts, about 1263 years before Christ, by Byzas, who then reigned in the neighbouring country, from whom the city was called Byzantium. In one account it is stated that this Byzas arrived in Thrace, a little before the Argonauts came into those seas, and settled there with a colony of Megarians. Others say that the navigator Byzas, who was styled the son of Neptune, founded the city 656 years before the Christian era, and that his followers were drawn from Argos and Megara.

Some ancient medals of Byzantium, which have reached our times, bear the name and head of Byzas, with the prow of a ship on the reverse; probably of that ship which brought him into Thrace.

The glory of founding this great metropolis, has been ascribed to the Milesians and the inhabitants of Attica. During the year 476, before the birth of Christ, Pausanias, the commander of the Lacedæmonian fleet, took Byzantium from the Persians, who had been masters of it since the invasion of Thrace, by Darius Hystaspes, king of Persia. Pausanias rebuilt and fortified the city, while he remained in possession of it.

It underwent many revolutions, having been sometime subject to the Persians, sometimes to the Lacedæmonians and also to the Athenians, who took possession of it about the year 407, before Christ. After many vicissitudes, Vespasian, A. D. 71, reduced Greece, Byzantium and Thrace, to Roman provinces.

In the contest between Niger and the emperor Severus, the former placed a numerous garrison in Byzantium, but after a siege of three years, it surrendered to Severus.

The conqueror massacred all the soldiers, magistrates and commanders; the estates of the inhabitants were confiscated; the city was deprived of its privileges, and even of its title of city; the fortifications were totally dismantled, and such a scene of ruin and desolation did it exhibit, as would have made any one think, it had been conquered, not by Romans, but by barbarians.

The emperor, at the request of his young son, rebuilt a considerable part of the city, and called it Antonia, from the surname of Antonius, assumed by his son; but never restored it to its ancient pri-

vileges, and it soon after became subject to the Perinthians.

In the year 262, the tyrant Gallienus exercised cruel vengeance on Byzantium. Having been admitted into the city upon his promise of moderation and clemency, he basely broke his word and caused both the garrison and inhabitants to be slaughtered. In the war between Licinius and Maximin, Byzantium was taken by the latter; it was, however, soon recovered by Licinius. But in 324, Licinius was defeated by Constantine the Great, in two battles, and the cities of Byzantium and Chalcedon opened their gates to the conqueror.

Before the capture of Byzantium, Constantine had conceived the design of erecting the seat of his empire near the Rhætean promontory, where the dauntless Ajax had pitched his tents, defended the navy against the rage of Jove and Hector, and where his sepulchre was erected, after he had fallen a sacrifice to his disappointed pride, and the ingratitude of the Greeks, during the Trojan war. From this celebrated spot, the Romans derived their fabulous origin. The extensive plain which lies below ancient Troy, towards the Rhætean promontory, and near the tomb of Ajax, was first chosen for his new capital; and though the undertaking was soon relinquished, the stately remains of unfinished walls and towers, attracted the notice of all who sailed through the straits of the Hellespont.

During the operations of the war against Licinius, Constantine had sufficient opportunity to contemplate, both as a soldier and a statesman, the

incomparable position of Byzantium; and to observe how strongly it was guarded by nature against an hostile attack, whilst it was accessible on every side to the benefits of commercial intercourse.

The figure of the imperial city may be represented under that of an unequal triangle. The obtuse point, which advances towards the east and the shores of Asia, meets and repels the waves of the Thracian Bosporus. The northern side of the city is bounded by the gulf of Ceros, which forms the harbour; and the southern is washed by the Propontis. The basis of the triangle is opposed to the west, and terminates the continent of Europe. The harbour, which may be considered as an arm of the Bosporus, obtained, in a very remote period, the denomination of the *Golden Horn*. This epithet was expressive of the riches, which every wind wafted from the most distant countries, into the secure and capacious port of Byzantium. The river Lycus formed by the conflux of two little streams, pours into the harbour a perpetual supply of fresh water, which serves to cleanse the bottom, and to invite the periodical shoals of fish to seek their retreat in that convenient recess. As the vicissitudes of tides are not felt, the constant depth of the water renders it extremely convenient to lade and unlade vessels at the quay. From the mouth of the Lycus, to that of the harbour, this arm of the Bosporus is more than seven miles in length. The entrance is about five hundred yards broad. The position of Byzantium appeared to have been

formed by nature for the centre and capital of a great empire.

Situated in the forty first degree of north latitude, the imperial city commanded from her seven hills, the opposite shores of Europe and Asia; the climate was healthy and temperate; the soil fertile, the harbour secure and capacious; and the approach on the side of the continent was of small extent and easy defence.

The Bosporus and Hellespont may be considered as the two gates of Constantinople; and the prince who possessed those important passages, could always shut them against a naval enemy, and open them to the fleets of commerce, as the barbarians of the Euxine, who in the preceding ages had poured their armaments into the heart of the Mediterranean, soon desisted from the exercise of piracy, and despaired of forcing this insurmountable barrier. When the gates of the Hellespont and Bosporus were shut, the capital still enjoyed, within their spacious enclosures, every production which could support the wants, or gratify the luxury of its numerous inhabitants.

In sailing up the Propontis towards the city, the most enchanting prospects charm the eye of the navigator; from every part of that sea he may discover the high lands of Thrace or Bythinia, and never loses sight of mount Olympus, till at last the city itself rising from the strand, attracts his view, and exhibits the most magnificent appearance. When the passages of the straits were thrown open for trade, they alternately admitted the natural and

artificial riches of the north and south; of the Euxine and Mediterranean. Whatever rude commodities were collected in the forests of Germany and Scythia, as far as the source of the Tanais and Borysthenes; whatsoever was manufactured by the skill of Europe or Asia; the corn of Egypt, and the gems and spices of the farthest India, were brought by the varying winds into the port of Byzantium, which for many ages attracted the commerce of the ancient world.

The prospect of beauty, of safety, and of wealth, united in a single spot, was sufficient to justify the choice of Constantine.

But as some decent mixture of prodigy and fable, has in every age been supposed to reflect a becoming majesty on the origin of great cities, the emperor thought proper to avail himself of this circumstance; and in one of his laws he has taken care to inform posterity, that in obedience to the commands of God, he laid "*the everlasting foundations of Constantinople.*"

The ingenuity of succeeding writers has led them to describe the nocturnal vision, which appeared to the fancy of Constantine, as he slept within the walls of Byzantium. The tutelar genius of the city, a venerable matron, was suddenly transformed into a blooming maid, whom his own hands adorned with all the symbols of imperial greatness. The monarch awoke, interpreted the auspicious omen, and, without hesitation, obeyed the will of Heaven. In order deeply to impress the minds of the spectators, the emperor himself on foot, with a

lance in his hand, led a solemn procession and directed the line, which was traced as the boundary of the destined capital, till the growing circumference was observed with astonishment, by the assistants, who, at length ventured to observe that he had already exceeded the most ample measure of a great city. "I shall still advance," replied Constantine, "till He, the invisible guide, who marches before me, thinks proper to stop."

The new walls of Constantine stretched from the port to the Propontis, across the enlarged breadth of the triangle; and with the city of Byzantium they enclosed five of the seven hills, which to the eyes of those who approach Constantinople, appear to rise above each other in beautiful order. The circumference of the city measured between ten and eleven miles.

The master of the Roman world, who aspired to erect an eternal monument to the glories of his reign, could employ in the prosecution of that great work, the wealth, the labour and all that yet remained of the genius of obedient millions.

Some estimate may be formed of the expense bestowed with imperial liberality, on the foundation of Constantinople, by the allowance of about eleven millions of dollars for the construction of the walls, the porticoes and the aqueducts.

The forests that over-shadowed the shores of the Euxine, and the celebrated quarries of white marble in the little island of Proconnesus, supplied an inexhaustible stock of materials, ready to be conveyed, by a short water carriage, to the harbour of

Byzantium. A multitude of labourers and artificers urged the conclusion of the work with incessant toil. Constantine soon discovered, that in the decline of the arts, the skill as well as merit of his architects, bore a very unequal proportion to the greatness of his design. The magistrates of the most distant provinces were therefore directed to institute schools, to appoint professors, and by the hopes of rewards and privileges, to engage in the study and practice of architecture, a sufficient number of ingenious youths, who had received a liberal education. The buildings of the new city were executed by such artificers as the reign of Constantine could afford; but they were decorated by the hands of the most celebrated masters of the age of Pericles and Alexander. To revive the genius of Phidias and Lysippus, surpassed indeed the power of a Roman emperor; but the immortal productions which they had bequeathed to posterity, were exposed without defence, to the rapacious vanity of a despot. By his command the cities of Greece and Asia were despoiled of their most valuable ornaments. The trophies of memorable wars, the objects of religious veneration, the most finished statues of the Gods and heroes, of the sages and poets, of ancient times, contributed to the splendid triumph of Constantinople; and gave occasion to the remark of a Grecian historian of the eleventh century, who observes, with some enthusiasm, that nothing seemed wanting, excepting the souls of the illustrious men, whom those admirable monuments were intended to represent.

During the siege of Byzantium the conqueror had pitched his tent on the commanding eminence of the second hill. To perpetuate the memory of his success, he chose the same advantageous position for the principal Forum.

In order to furnish this favoured city with a population corresponding to its extent and magnificence, Constantine invited many opulent senators from Rome and all the eastern provinces, to fix upon his chosen residence, for their own habitation.

He bestowed on his favourites the palaces, which he had built in the several quarters of the city; assigned them lands and pensions for the support of their dignity, and alienated the demesnes of Pontus and Asia, to grant hereditary estates, by the easy tenure of maintaining a house in the capital.

He divided Constantinople into fourteen regions; dignified the public council with the appellation of Senate; and communicated to the citizens the privileges of Italy.

As Constantine urged the progress of the work with the impatience of a lover, the walls, the porticoes and the principal edifices, were completed in a few years; and the founder prepared to celebrate the dedication of the city, which took place on the eleventh of May in the year 330, the 25th of Constantine's reign, and 1128 after the foundation of Rome. The ceremony was attended with pompous games and munificent largesses. At the festival of the dedication the emperor, by an edict, engraved on a column of marble, bestowed the title of SECOND or NEW ROME on the city; but the

name of Constantinople has prevailed over that honorable epithet; and after the revolution of fifteen centuries, still perpetuates the name of its author.

Other cities have been reared to maturity by accident and time; their beauties are mingled with disorder and deformity. But the free idea of Constantinople was formed and executed by a single mind, and the primitive model was improved by the zeal of the subjects and successors of the first monarch. The public and private buildings, the palaces, churches, aqueducts, cisterns, porticoes, columns, baths and hippodromes, were adapted to the greatness of the capital of the east. The superfluity of wealth was spread along the shores of Europe and Asia; and the Byzantine territory, as far as the Euxine, the Hellespont and the long wall, might be considered as a populous suburb and a perpetual garden. Surrounded by a triple wall flanked with numerous lofty and solid towers, a broad and rapid stream could be introduced into the ditches and the artificial island encompassed by land or water. A distinguished author of the fourteenth century observes, that its extensive ramparts and massy gates might be compared with those of Babylon; but that the work of ancient sculpture had been defaced by christian zeal and barbaric violence. The fairest structures were demolished, and the marbles of Paros and Numidia, were burnt for lime or applied to the meanest uses. Of many a statue the place was marked by an empty pedestal; of many a column the site was de-

termined by a broken capital; the tombs of the emperors were scattered on the ground; the stroke of time was accelererated by storms and earthquakes, and the vacant space adorned by vulgar tradition, with fabulous monuments of gold and silver.

Mahomet II. imitated the sacrilegious acts of devastation and rapine which generally have disgraced the conquerors of large cities.

The loss of the Byzantine libraries is the most seriously to be deplored, which were destroyed or scattered in the general confusion: one hundred and twenty thousand manuscripts are said to have disappeared, which contained the noblest productions of the sciences and literature of ancient Greece and Rome. But when the victorious Sultan in his triumphal tour through the city, arrived at the august, but desolate mansion of an hundred successors of the great Constantine, a melancholy reflection on the vicissitudes of human greatness, forced itself on his mind, as he repeated this elegant passage of Persian poetry;—

"The spider has wove his web in the imperial palace; and the owl hath sung her watch-song on the towers of Afrasiab."

The fortifications of Galata were destroyed, but the damages done to those of the city, by the Turkish cannon, were soon repaired.

As the entire property of the soil and buildings, whether public or private, profane or sacred, was transferred to the conqueror, he first separated

a space of eight furlongs, from the point of the triangle, for the establishment of his seraglio, or palace. It is here, in the bosom of luxury, the Grand Seignior appears to reign over Europe and Asia. In front he commands a charming prospect of the delightful coast of Anatolia, on the left the channel of the Black Sea meanders like a majestic river, between numerous hills, covered with splendid palaces, enchanting villas, verdant groves and beautiful gardens; in the south the receding shores of Rumelia and Asia Minor open an illimitable view over the expanding surface of the Propontis, where waves in undisputed dominion the bannered crescent of the "*faithful*," amid the various flags of commerce, which float on every breeze, from the Euxine and Archipelago; while beneath his eyes, ships, innumerable boats, dolphins, birds, with all the floating pageantry of the vast metropolis, present a moving picture, such as no other capital in the world can pretend to exhibit.

The enclosure of the Ottoman palace is seperated from Constantinople by a wall thirty feet high, with battlements, embrasures, and towers, in the style of ancient fortifications. Its circumference is more than three miles, and may be considered a city within the city of Constantinople, comprehending a multitude of inhabitants, palaces, houses, kiosks, and gardens.

The irregular mass of edifices within these limits was built at different periods, and enlarged

to suit the whim or taste of the reigning Sultan, or some favourite Sultana, without any regard to architectural proportions; but the numerous cypress trees, lofty towers, and gilded crescents and domes, which rise above the surrounding ramparts, form a groupe of magnificent and beautiful objects, superiour perhaps to the more regular palaces of christian princes.

There are in it nine gates, but only two of them are remarkable for their size or beauty. It is from one of these, the *Baba Hoomajun*, or *Sublime Porte*, that the Ottoman court is supposed to have taken the name of the *Port*, or *Sublime Porte*, in all public transactions or records. But some recent travellers in the east, contend that the palace of the Grand Vizier, by a metaphor familiar to most of the eastern languages, is called the Porte or King's gate, in Persian Der, being as it were, the door of communication between the Sultan and his subjects, and corresponding with the European appellation of a court, which follows the person of the sovereign. The grandees waited at the gate of the Persian kings. This custom established by Cyrus, continued as long as the monarchy. Beloe observes, that ignorance of this custom has caused several mistakes, particularly in the history of Mordecai the Jew, in the book of Esther, who is by most authors represented as meanly situated, when placed there. Many traces of this custom may be found in Xenophon's Cyropædia. Plutarch in his life of Themistocles uses the expression of "*those at the king's*

gate," as a general designation for nobles and state officers. That it was a distinguished station, is beyond a doubt, for Herodotus relates a conversation on military virtue, between Orœtes, governor of Sardis and Mitrobates governor of Doscylium, as they were "*one day sitting at the king's gate*," during the reign of Cambyses.

The seraglio is so extensive, that it is supposed to occupy the whole of the ground, on which the ancient city of Byzantium stood, and to contain 10,000 inhabitants. As foreigners are not permitted to pass the gates of the seraglio, we have but a very imperfect knowledge of the interior of the walls. A few individuals have had the address, however, to elude the vigilance of the eunuchs and Janizaries, who guard with the vigilance of the Colchian dragon, this sacred residence of the Sultan, and have related the particulars of their adventurous excursions.

Entering the gate which faces the Bosporus on the south eastern side, the spectator is struck by a wild and confused assemblage of great and interesting objects: among the first of these are enormous cypress trees, massive and lofty masonry, neglected and broken sarcophagi, high rising mounds, and a long gloomy avenue, leading from the gate of the garden, between the double walls of the seraglio, where the Sultanas come out to take the air, and for recreation.

The avenue extending from this gate, towards the west, offers a broad and beautiful although solitary walk, to a very considerable extent, shut

in by high walls on both sides. Directly opposite this entrance of the Seraglio is a very lofty mound, or bank covered by large trees, and traversed by terraces, over which, on the top, are walls and turrets. On the right hand, after entering, are the large folding doors of the Grand Seignior's garden; and near them lie many fragments of ancient marbles: among others a sarcophagus of one block of marble, covered with a bas-relief. Entering the gardens by the folding doors, a pleasing *coup d'œil* of trellis-work and covered walks is displayed; various *jets d'eau*, gravel walks, borders disposed in parallelograms, and a green-house filled with orange trees. The view on entering is down the principal gravel-walk; and all the walks meet at a central point, beneath a dome of trellis-work, by which they are covered. Small fountains spout into large shells, or form parachutes, over lighted bougies, by the sides of the walks, on the outside of which, are small parterres edged with box, containing flowers and adorned with fountains.

On the right hand, after entering the garden, appears the magnificent kiosk, which constitutes the Sultan's summer residence. Directly opposite the garden gate is the door of the Charem or Harem, where the women, belonging to the Grand Seignior, reside. It is a large quadrangular building enclosing a court. One side of this palace extends across the upper extremity of the garden, so that the windows look into it. Below the windows are green houses filled with plants and canary birds.

Still facing the Charem, on the left hand, is a paved ascent, leading through a handsome gilded iron gate, from the lower to the upper garden. Returning from the Charem, to the entrance door, a lofty wall on the right hand supports a terrace, with parterres, which is called the upper garden. The kiosk where the Sultan resides in the summer is situated on the sea shore. Fashioned after the airy fantastic style of Eastern architecture, it presents a spacious chamber, covered by a dome, from which a raised platform advances towards the harbour, surrounded by windows and terminated by a divan. On the right and left, are the private apartments of the Sultan and his ladies. From the centre of the dome is suspended a large lustre, and above the platform hangs another more elegant. Immediately over the divan are mirrors. The sofas are covered with white satin beautifully embroidered. Leaving the platform, on the left is the Sultan's private chamber of repose, the floor of which is surrounded by couches of very costly workmanship. Opposite to this chamber on the other side of the kiosk, a door opens to the apartment in which are placed the attendant Sultanas, the Sultan mother, and the ladies in residence with the sovereign. A stair case leads from these apartments to two chambers below, paved with marble, where reside a more numerous assemblage of females, during the heat of summer.

Answering to the platform mentioned above, is another of a similar nature, closely latticed,

where the ladies sit during the season of their residence in this place.

On the principal side of the court of the summer Charem, is an open cloister supported by white marble columns. In this Charem is the great chamber of audience, in which the Sultan mother receives visits of ceremony from the Sultanas, and distinguished ladies of the Charem. It is surrounded with large mirrors, and the floors are covered with the richest carpets. At the upper end is the Sultana's throne, surrounded by latticed blinds. A lofty flight of broad steps, covered with crimson cloth, leads to it. On the right and left of the throne, are the sleeping apartments of the Sultan mother, and her females in waiting. Beyond the chamber of audience is the assembly room of the Sultan, which he occasionally visits during the winter, to hear music, and to amuse himself with his favourites. This room is surrounded with mirrors and magnificently furnished.

There are elegant baths in a part of the Charem, constructed of white marble, from which fountains continually play, and every degree of refined luxury has been added, which a people, versed in the ceremonies of the bath, have been capable of inventing.

The Chamber of Repose commands the finest view afforded from this point of the Seraglio. It forms a part of the building which is supported towards the sea, by twelve columns of that beautiful and rare breccia called *verde antique*. They are of the finest quality ever seen; and each of

them consists of an entire stone. The two interior pillars are of green Egyptian breccia, more beautiful than any specimens of the kind existing. On that side of the Charem which looks into the Seraglio gardens, are various apartments, where the ladies entertain themselves with comedies, dances and music, and where the inferior females are lodged.

From the lower garden of the Seraglio, a paved way leads towards the Chamber of the Garden of Hyacinth, where the Sultan passes most of his private hours. This garden is laid out into neat oblong borders, edged with porcelain, where no plant is suffered to grow, except the hyacinth, whence the name of this garden and chamber. Nothing can be more magnificent than the apartment of the Grand Seignior. Three sides of it are surrounded by divans, the cushions and pillars of which are covered with black embroidered satin. The ceiling of the room is of burnished gold. The doors are covered with crimson hangings, and the floor with Gobelins tapestry. On the different compartments of the walls are disposed, with singular taste and effect, pistols, sabres, and poignards, richly ornamented with diamonds, which give a most gorgeous effect to the splendour of this sumptuous apartment.

Within the walls of the Seraglio is the imperial armoury, which contains the weapons, shields and military engines of the Greek emperors, exactly corresponding with those represented on the medals and bas-reliefs of the ancients, suspended as

trophies of the capture of the city by the Turks, and are carried on sumpter-horses, in the great annual processions of the Grand Seignior, at the opening of the Bairam.*

Among the ancient monuments preserved with care in the Seraglio, is the tomb of Constantine the Great.

The mint is a large building within a spacious irregular court, which fronts one of the principal gates. Near it are the quarters of the Janizaries, which are massive stone edifices, and surround an extensive square.

Near the north east angle of the Seraglio, is an ancient and magnificent column, between sixty and seventy feet high, but it is erected in a place so strictly prohibited to profane eyes, that no accurate description of it has been given by any travellers. At the foot of the wall, on the outside, is a line of batteries which extend round the point, formed by the port and the Bosporus. They were constructed under the directions of the ambassadors of France and Spain, General Sebastiani and the Marquis Almenora, at the time Constantinople was menaced by the British fleet, commanded by Admiral Duckworth.

There is a kiosk, belonging to the Sultan, situated upon the water's edge, without the walls of the Seraglio, at the extreme of the gulf of Ceras.

* The Bairam, is called in Arabic Id al Fetr, that is the Feast of breaking the Fast, and begins the first of Shawal, immediately succeeding the Fast of Ramadan.

It is called *Alai Kiosk*, and consists of a small square house surrounded with a large gallery, supported by marble columns. The floors are covered with carpets, the ceilings adorned with pictures and gildings. The Sultan's large sofa, mounted with solid silver, is placed facing the sea, in front of which is a marble fountain.

The formidable state prison of the *Seven Towers*, built of fine free stone, and surrounded by a wall with several small towers, stands on the shores of the Propontis, and forms the south western angle of the city. In this castle, the ambassadors are confined, when war is declared by the Ottoman Porte, against the nations which they represent. The apartments which they occupy are said to have been built by Belisarius.

The ancient Hippodrome, now called by the Turks Atmiedan, which signifies the Horse-Course, is 2750 feet long and 600 in breadth. It was begun by Alexander Severus, and finished by Constantine. The beauty of the Hippodrome, has long since been defaced by the rude hands of the various conquerors of Constantinople, but it still serves as a place of exercise for horses. From the throne, whence the emperor viewed the Circensian games, a winding stair-case descended to the imperial palace; a magnificent edifice, which together with the dependent courts, gardens and porticoes, covered a considerable extent of ground, upon the banks of the Bosporus, between the Hippodrome and the church of St. Sophia.

The space between the two metæ or goals was filled with statues and columns. An obelisk still remains which is about sixty feet in height, of one entire block of Egyptian granite, resting on four cubes of bronze, under which is a marble pedestal covered with bas-reliefs and Greek and Latin inscriptions. Upon each of the four sides of the obelisk, is a single perpendicular line of Egyptian hieroglyphics, of large dimensions.

The art of decyphering these characters, which was only known by the Egyptian priests, at the period the father of historians visited that country, and has long since been lost to the world, appears to have been discovered by Mr. Palin, who, for many years was the Swedish ambassador at the Ottoman Porte. This accomplished scholar was distinguished for his literary genius, extensive acquirements and laborious researches as an antiquarian.

During the year 1809, he informed an American gentleman, who at that period was in Constantinople, he had ascertained from the hieroglyphical inscriptions on this obelisk, that it was originally erected in Egypt, by Amenophis the father of Sesostris.

A representation of the Hippodrome is given in bas-relief, upon the base of the obelisk, by which it appears, there were originally two, one at each extremity of the course. The manner in which this immense mass was raised and placed upon its pedestal by the emperor Theodosius, is represented also in a series of bas-reliefs. The workmen appear employed with a number of windlasses, all

brought, by means of ropes and pullies, to act at once on the stone.

At a little distance from the obelisk, is a very singular fragment of antiquity, called the *brazen column,* consisting of the bodies of three serpents, twisted spirally together, into one pillar of bronze. It is about twelve feet in height. This column, brought from the temple of Delphi, where the triple heads which are now broken off and destroyed, once supported the celebrated golden tripod, found by the victorious Greeks, after the battle of Platea, in the camp of Mardonius, commander of the army of Xerxes, and which was consecrated by the Lacedæmonian general Pausanias, to Apollo.

When Mahomet II. entered the Hippodrome, after the capture of the city, his eye was attracted by the twisted column of the three serpents, and as a trial of his strength, shattered with his battle-axe the under jaw of one of these monsters. Being hollow there are many holes in it, occasioned by the spears which the Turks have thrown, while exercising their horses in the Atmiedan, and it is filled up with broken tiles, stones and other rubbish. In the circumstances of its history, no relic of antiquity can be more interesting, as the facts have been so well ascertained, that they will probably never be disputed.

On a line with these stands another obelisk, built of stones of various kinds and sizes, which is much higher than the Egyptian one. From the holes morticed into the sides, it formerly was covered with plates of bronze, like the column of Austerlitz,

erected by Napoleon in Paris. It has suffered from the ravages of time and threatens to tumble from its base. Tournefort gives the following as one of the inscriptions formerly on its base.

"The Emperor Constantine, now reigning, father of the Romans, the glory of the empire, has made much more wonderful than it was before, this admirable square pyramid, which time had destroyed and which was crowded with sublime things; the incomparable Colossus was at Rhodes, and this surprising work here."

In the street of Adrianople stands a column of red porphyry which having been much injured by fire is now called the "*burnt pillar.*" It is of the Ionic order, entwined at equal distances with laurel foliage, of excellent sculpture, and stands on a pedestal of white marble, twenty feet high. The shaft is composed of ten pieces of porphyry, each of which is ten feet in height, and about thirty three in circumference, the joints of which are covered with copper hoops. The site of this column was the centre of the principal Forum, which was of an elliptical form; the two opposite entrances formed triumphal arches, and the porticoes which enclosed it on every side were filled with statues. On the summit of the pillar, one hundred and twenty feet from the ground, stood a colossal statue of Apollo. It was of bronze, had been transported either from Athens or from a town of Phrygia, and was supposed to be the work of Phidias. The artist had represented the God of Day, or as it was afterwards interpreted, the emperor Con-

stantine himself, with a sceptre in his right hand, the globe of the world in his left, and a crown of rays glittering on his head. This statue was thrown down during the reign of Alexis Commenus.

The great mosque of Aya Sophia, the ancient Cathedral of St. Sophia, which fronts the great gate of the Seraglio, is a magnificent edifice. The principal church, which was dedicated by the founder of Constantinople to Saint Sophia, had been twice destroyed by fire; after the exile of John Chrysostom, and during the Nika* of the blue and green factions, which raged with such horrid violence in the early part of the reign of Justinian.

No place was safe or sacred from their depredations; churches and altars were polluted by atrocious murders; the laws were silent and the bands of society relaxed; at length a general conflict ensued, and for five days the city was abandoned to slaughter, rapine and conflagration. The flames involved the holy cathedral, the baths of Zeuxippus, a part of the palace, from the entrance to the altar of Mars, and the long portico, from the palace to the forum of Constantine. Many churches and stately edifices were plundered and destroyed, and the streets deluged with the blood of contending factions.

When the tumult had subsided, the christian populace deplored their sacrilegous rashness, and were zealous in their efforts to rebuild the prostrated temple, which was strenuously undertaken by

* Nika, *Vanquish!* was the watchword, and has given name to this memorable sedition.

the piety of Justinian. The ruins were cleared away, and a most spacious plan was designed, for the new edifice, by Anthemius. His genius directed the hands of ten thousand workmen. The emperor himself, in a linen tunic, surveyed each day their rapid progress, and encouraged their diligence, by his familiarity, his zeal and his rewards.

In less than six years, the new cathedral was consecrated by the patriarch, and in the midst of the solemn festival, Justinian exclaimed, "Glory to God, who hath thought me worthy to accomplish so great a work; I have vanquished thee, O Solomon!" Before twenty years had elapsed, the eastern part of the dome was overthrown, by an earthquake, but its splendour was again restored, by the perseverance of the same prince, and in 563 he celebrated the second dedication of a temple, which remains after a lapse of more than twelve centuries, a stately monument of his reign.

The architecture of St. Sophia, now converted into the principal mosque, has been imitated by the Turkish sultans, and that venerable pile, continues to excite the fond admiration of the Greeks and the rational curiosity of all travellers. The grand elliptic dome, surrounded by eight smaller ones, and illuminated by twenty four windows, is one hundred and fifteen feet in diameter, and the lofty centre where a crescent has supplanted the cross, rises to the perpendicular height of one hundred and eighty feet above the pavement. The circle which encompasses the dome, lightly reposes on four strong arches, and their weight is

firmly supported by four massy piles, whose strength is assisted on the northern end and southern sides, by four columns of Egyptian granite.

A Greek cross inscribed in a quadrangle represents the form of the edifice; the breadth is two hundred and forty three feet, and the extreme length two hundred and sixty nine, from the sanctuary in the east to the nine western doors, which open into the vestibule, and from thence into the *narthex*, or exterior portico. That portico was the humble station of the penitents. The nave of the church was filled by the congregation of the faithful, but the two sexes were distinguished, and the upper and lower galleries were allotted for the more private devotions of the women.

Beyond the northern and southern piles, a balustrade, terminated on either side by the thrones of the emperor and the patriarch, divided the nave from the choir; and the space as far as the steps of the altar was occupied by the clergy and singers.

The altar itself was placed in the eastern recess, artificially built, in the form of a demi-cylinder; and this sanctuary communicated by several doors with the sacristy, the vestry, the baptistery and the contiguous buildings, subservient either to the pomp of worship, or the private use of the ecclesiastical ministers. No wood was admitted into the new edifice, and the choice of materials was applied to the strength, the lightness, or the splendour of the respective parts. The solid piles which sustained the cupola were composed of huge blocks of free stone, hewn into squares and triangles, forti-

fied by circles of iron, and firmly cemented by the infusion of lead and quicklime: but the weight of the cupola was diminished by the levity of its substance, which consists either of pumice stone, that floats in the water, or of bricks from the isle of Rhodes, five times less ponderous than the ordinary sort. The whole frame of the edifice was constructed of brick; but these base materials were concealed by a crust of marble; and the inside of St. Sophia, the two larger and six smaller domes, the walls, the hundred columns, and the pavements, delight even the eyes of barbarians, with a rich and variegated picture. A great variety of marbles, jaspers, porphyries and other costly stones, the colours and shades of which nature had profusely diversified, extracted from the quarries of Asia Minor, the isles and continent of Greece, Egypt, Africa, and Gaul, and the last spoils of paganism, were collected to adorn this ancient church.

Eight columns of porphyry, which Aurelian had placed in the temple of the Sun, were offered by the piety of a Roman matron; eight others of green marble were presented by the ambitious zeal of the magistrates of Ephesus, which are admirable for their size and beauty. A variety of ornaments and figures curiously expressed in mosaic, and images of Christ, of the Virgin, of saints and of angels, have been defaced by Turkish fanaticism. The balustrade of the choir, the capitals of the pillars, the ornaments of the doors and galleries, were of gilt bronze; the spectator was dazzled

by the glittering aspect of the dome, which was covered with a uniform coating of gilded *tesseræ;* the sanctuary contained forty thousand pounds weight of silver; and the holy vases and vestments of the altar were of the purest gold, enriched with inestimable gems. The Mosaic work remains very entire, in many parts of the interior.

In the great arch, opposite to the principal entrance, are representations of the figures of the virgin, of saints and groupes of enormous wings, without bodies, in coloured Mosaic. There is a superb marble jar in the northwest angle of the principal nave, which is executed with great taste, and serves for a fountain.

The other mosques of Constantinople have been built after the plan of St. Sophia, and particularly that of Sultan Soliman, called Solimania, situated on the third hill. It contains twenty four columns of granite, and of Cipolino marble, together with some very large slabs of porphyry. Four red granite pillars, near five feet in diameter, and from thirty five to forty feet high, stand between the stone piers which support the dome. There are also two magnificent columns of porphyry at the entrance of the court. In the middle of a small garden, by the side of this mosque, is the tourbeh, or sepulchre of Soliman, a handsome octangular chapel.

The mosque of Sultan Bajazet is rich in ancient columns of granite, porphyry, *verd-antique*, and marble; two of them are thirty feet high and five in diameter. In the mosque of Osmaria are pillars

of Egyptian granite, twenty two feet high and three feet in diameter; and near it is the celebrated sarcophagus of red porphyry, called the *Tomb of Constantine*, nine feet long, seven feet wide and five feet thick, of one entire mass. This mosque is famed for its painted glass, and is paved with marble. The mosque of Sultan Achmid is very handsome. The four great pillars that support the central dome are encrusted with very fine white marble in flutings; the tribune of the Sultan is supported by a great number of small columns, among which are some of a superb brown marble, and the angular ones are of verd-antique. In the court are some magnificent columns of red Egyptian granite. Several antique vases of glass, and earthen ware, are also there suspended, exactly as they were in the temples of the ancients, with the votive offerings. The Sultan goes to this mosque to celebrate the two Easters and the birth of the Prophet, because the situation of it is convenient for all his suit, which may extend itself into the Hippodrome in front of the mosque.

The sepulchre of Sultan Abdoulhamid, the father of Sultan Moustapha, is a fine octangular chapel, in which the faithful revere a black stone, set in silver, and placed in a niche, upon which is preserved the print of the prophet's feet.

In the suburb of Eyoule, situated on the bank of the port, beyond the north west angle of the city, is a mosque, built by Mahomet II., where the grand Seignior receives solemn possession of his dominions, by having a sword girded on him,

by the Mufti; a ceremony equivalent to the coronation of the monarchs of Europe. This edifice forms one side of a court, opposite to which is a chapel containing the sepulchre of a holy disciple of the prophet, revered as the patron of Constantinople, and whose bones were miraculously found on this spot. The court is a parallelogram, surrounded with arches on three sides. There are two poplars in the middle, which are extremely large, and the branches shade the whole court.

The large cupola of the mosque, rests upon a square, at the angles of which are slender pillars. Under the cupola are six large cylindric columns, two on each, of three sides of the square. A half cupola forms a chapel in the end wall, in which is situated the sepulchre or niche, for the Imaum; and on the left of this, is the tribune of the Sultan. The walls are encrusted with the rarest marbles; the pavement is covered with the richest carpets; a great number of bars forming concentric circles, suspended horizontally from the roof, at the height of seven or eight feet, support an infinity of small lamps, girandoles in chrystal, in silver, ostrich eggs, cocoa nut shells, and other ornaments; the whole garnished with gold and silver, enamelled with the richest colours, which form an admirable spectacle. At the part opposite the court, is a saloon, ornamented with superb carpets and sofas, the walls of which are covered with hundreds of little tablets, well written and variously decorated.

In one of the walls of the saloon, which forms an anti-chamber to the chapel, is a niche, in which

is preserved a piece of striped brown and white marble, bearing the print of the prophet's foot. The chapel, lighted by five windows, forms a small temple, surmounted with a dome. The tomb of the patron saint, placed in the middle, is covered with a rich cloth, and surrounded with a silver balustrade. At the head of the tomb is a flag folded up in a case, which is the distinctive sign of the disciple of the Prophet; on the opposite side is a well, from which they draw up the water in silver buckets, which they drink in vases of the same metal, because it is believed to be blessed, and even miraculous.

Near the seven towers is a mosque, which was formerly a church. It has a very handsome portico, with four pillars of white marble, which support a very rich entablature. The nave is divided from the aisles, by seven verd antique columns, of the Composite order, six feet two inches in circumference; over these are as many more of the Ionic order.

There is a cistern under a court, to the south of it, in which there are four rows of Corinthian pillars.

It is said there are more than three hundred other mosques in Constantinople, several of which are celebrated for their names and architecture. Near these mosques are the sepulchres of celebrated personages, as well as schools, libraries, hospitals, khans for travellers, and other pious foundations.

The only opportunity of seeing the Grand Seignior, is when he goes from the Seraglio, every Friday, to one of the principal mosques, attended by a numerous suite.

Near the middle of the city is the ancient palace of Constantine, called Eski Serai, or the old Seraglio. The walls are very high, and it is now occupied by the women dismissed from the Seraglio.

The cistern of Phyllosene, constructed in the time of Constantine to furnish the city with water, is at present a dry cavern, in which a silk manufactory is established, where two hundred people are employed. The top is supported by two hundred and twelve columns of coarse marble. Each column is composed of two shafts, one upon the other. The under one is surmounted by a base, instead of a capital, upon which the upper shaft rests. The latter has for its capital an irregular block, resembling a reversed truncated cone, on which Greek characters are to be seen. The earth and rubbish, which have been thrown in, have buried the lower columns one third of their height. The cistern is sixty feet deep.

The Khans of the bankers rank next to the mosques among the public edifices of any note.

The great Bazar, called *El Bezesteinn,* is magnificent. It is composed of several streets, entirely covered with high ceilings, through which the light enters by means of sky-lights. Some of these streets are occupied solely by silk mercers; others contain jewellers' shops; others again present a

diversity of ware-houses for arms, rich harness, Indian cloths, cottons and woollens, time-pieces, and productions from all parts of the world.

The fountains are extremely beautiful. These buildings are of marble, about twenty feet square; with pipes of water on every side, and within, at each corner, are apartments with iron gates before them, where cups for water are always ready, and a person attending to fill them. The fronts are covered with bas-reliefs of trees and flowers, and the eves projecting six or seven feet, the soffit of them is adorned with carved work, in alto-relievo, richly gilded.

The fountains are supplied with water from the canton of Belgrade. There are three great walls in different places in this canton, which, closing up the passages between the mountains, form dikes or bents, that contain the rain water. The largest bent is nearly three leagues from Constantinople. The wall is 170 feet long, and fifteen feet thick at the top. It is formed of hewn stone. At a short distance is another constructed by the Sultan Valide. The water is conveyed to the city by conduits under ground and aqueducts. The aqueduct of Justinian, situated in a Greek village, called Pingos, has three rows of arches one upon the other, built of marble. Another aqueduct was built by Soliman Canouni. There is a third constructed by the Greeks, a little above Pingos. The boldness of the arches and the beauty of the work still attest the superiority of the arts at that period. But

this fine monument, neglected for ages, is beginning to decay. A fourth, built by the Turks in modern times, faces the Bosporus, at a short distance from Bojoukdere; the arches are similar to those of Justinian's aqueduct. These aqueducts form angles with the windings of the mountains, where conduits are placed under ground, at those places which admit of them.

Most of the houses in Constantinople are built with wooden frames, filled up with unburnt bricks, and a great number entirely of wood, but the rooms are very convenient. This construction occasions whole quarters to be burnt every year; but the fanaticism of the Turks withstands all these dreadful trials. They build new houses similar to those destroyed by fire, and leave the preservation of them to Providence. There are no chimnies in the houses. A brasier is placed in the middle of the room, that those who are not sufficiently warmed at a distance, may more conveniently draw near it; and this utensil, as in ancient times, is placed upon a tripod. To defend the face from the heat and smoke of the brasier, it is sometimes covered with a tendour, or square table; over which is a carpet, with a cloth of silk, richly embroidered. Round this, sofas or cushions are placed, for the accommodation of the company. The tendour is used chiefly by the ladies. In large apartments there are generally two or more brasiers which are beautifully ornamented. The fuel, consumed in them, is charcoal.

Constantinople is the only Mussulman city in which carriages are used. The streets are narrow

but are paved, with a raised footway on each side. The street of Adrianople is broad and adorned with many public buildings.

The quarter of the city inhabited by the Greeks, is called Le Fanal, where the principal Greek families have their houses; and here is the palace of their patriarch, situated on a hill about two hundred yards from the harbour.

The Greeks have twenty two churches. The Armenians have an arch-bishop and three churches; the Roman Catholics have six convents, and the Jews several synagogues. There is also a Swedish Lutheran church. Constantinople contains upwards of five hundred seminaries of learning, and twelve hundred and fifty primary schools.

The market, where the white female slaves are sold, is a quadrangle, surrounded by a covered gallery, and ranges of small and separate apartments, into which the purchaser takes the woman, who suits him, to examine her more particularly. None but Mahometans are permitted to enter this market.

The bagnios or public baths are elegant and noble structures; the inner chambers are capacious, and paved with slabs of the rarest and most beautiful marble.

Constantinople contains thirty five public libraries, in some of which are 15,000 volumes. That which was founded under Mustapha III. by the Vizier Racub Pacha, is the most modern. The first printing press was introduced into Constantinople, in the year 1727. It was afterwards destroyed by some

fanatics, but Abdul Hamid restored it. Only the Koran and books treating of the laws and the doctrines of the prophet, are forbidden to be printed. These circulate in manuscripts, and afford a comfortable subsistence to 20,000 individuals, who live by copying them. The market for manuscripts is one of the greatest curiosities of Constantinople. There is hardly any oriental author, whose writing is demanded, that may not be procured in the bazar of the booksellers. The number of shops employed in this way, in this market, and elsewhere, amounts to more than a hundred; each of these contain, upon an average, five hundred volumes; so that no less than fifty thousand manuscripts, Arabic, Persian, Greek and Turkish, are daily exposed for sale.

The suburb of Galata, which joins those of Tophana and Pera, is situated on the northern side of the port of Constantinople, and is nearly three miles in circumference. It was formerly surrounded by high stone walls, flanked with lofty towers, which were erected by the Genoese during the period they controlled the commerce of the Black Sea. A great portion of those extensive works are now nearly demolished. The houses, which are principally of wood, are built from the margin of the sea, towards the summit of the hills, in the rear.

The inhabitants are generally merchants consisting of Turks, Jews, Russians, Armenians, Greeks, French, English, Venetians, and the people of every nation, who have any trade with Constantinople.

In the most elevated part of the suburb, is the tower of Galata. It is built of stone and about one hundred feet high. On the top is a lantern, where a sentinel is constantly stationed, to give notice, by beating a large drum, of fires or insurrections, in the city or suburbs.

Pera lies North east of Galata, from which it is separated by a stone wall, and the gates are always closed a little before sun-down.

Here the ambassadors, the agents of foreign courts, and almost all foreigners reside, with the exception of the merchants, who are established at Galata, that being more conveniently situated for their commercial purposes.

Pera is one of the most populous quarters of the city, notwithstanding its distance from the harbour and the centre of business. One part is occupied by the wealthy Armenians, who have retired from business to be less exposed to the exactions and insults of the Turks, and to enjoy a little more liberty, under the protection of the Europeans.

The Russian, French, British, and other governments have erected palaces at Pera, for the accommodation of their ministers.

Tophana extends from Pera to the banks of the Bosporus. The Ottoman cannon-foundery and armouries are established at this place, on an extensive hill. Tophana and Pera are governed by the Topeju Bashaw, Captain of Artillery. On the brow of the hill is a public edifice called Galata Serai, built round an extensive court. It is destined for the young men who attend upon the Grand

Seignior, in the Seraglio, and contains generally about four hundred. They are orphans, or children of poor people.

The Sultan goes there once in two years, and selects a number, about twenty years old, who attend him as pages, accompany him on horseback, or in the chamber, and, according to their merit, are afterwards advanced to Pachas and the highest offices.

The artillery barracks are established at Tophana, where there is also a large battery to defend the port.

West of Galata is the navy-yard called Cassumpachæ. It is a very grand establishment and well furnished with the materials for building and fitting out a fleet. The Arsenal contains a great number of cannon, the greater part of which are brass. There is an excellent machine for masting ships, and a very fine building dock. Near the Arsenal is the palace of the Capudan Pacha, or grand admiral of the Ottoman navy; it is situated at the water's edge, with a handsome landing place. Behind it is the house belonging to the superintendant of the establishment. There is a sepulchral urn in front, which serves for a fountain. On a height, to the northwest of the naval depot, is a plain called Okemeidon, *the place of arrows.* There are many marble pillars standing to shew how far several Grand Seigniors have shot. This celebrated spot commands a fine view of the port and Constantinople. Here the Sultan reviews his armies before they advance to the frontiers, at the opening of a campaign.

Pera, Galata and Tophana are supplied with water, which is conveyed from Bauchicui, between Belgrade and Bojoukdery, where it crosses a valley, in an aqueduct, consisting of a great number of well built arches, from whence it runs round the hills and sometimes under ground. As it passes, part of it is conveyed to the villages on the west side of the canal of Constantinople, and coming near Pera, it runs into a reservoir, consisting of many little cells and is distributed from them to the several parts of Pera, Galata, and Tophana. The air of these suburbs is uncommonly healthy.

The banks of the Lycus and Hydraules, which fall into the gulf of Ceras, were formerly covered with palaces, country houses, and beautiful gardens, which during a rebellion, about eighty years since, were nearly all destroyed. On the left bank of the Lycus, near its mouth, the Grand Seignior has a palace called Sodabat. The promenade of the inhabitants of Constantinople is the burial ground, in the rear of Galata and Pera, called by the christians the field of the Dead, in which are the sepulchres of the Armenians, Franks and Greeks. It is shaded by cypress and other trees, and commands a fine view of the city and Bosporus.

Off the seraglio point, near the middle of the channel, is a small island, on which is a battery of heavy cannon, and the Tower of Leander, which is used as a light-house.

Scutari, which is considered as a suburb of Constantinople, is situated on the opposite bank of the channel, on a sloping ground: it presents itself

in the form of an amphitheatre, and affords a view very picturesque from the mixture of trees, houses, mosques and minarets. Its population is estimated at from sixty to eighty thousand souls. The greater number of the inhabitants of Scutari, are Turks; there are, however, many Greeks, a few Armenians, and some Jews. This town serves as an emporium and a rendezvous to the caravans of Asia: it carries on some trade inland, and likewise with Constantinople. Some manufactories of stuffs both of silk and of cotton are there to be seen. The ground which surrounds it is tolerably well cultivated, and furnishes grain, vegetables, herbage, fruit, and particularly grapes, which are kept during the whole winter and part of the spring.

At Scutari, there is one of the great mollas of the empire for the administration of justice. His jurisdiction embraces the part of the channel of the Black Sea on the side of Asia, and extends several leagues inland. He has under him, a naib, or lieutenant, and several registers. For the police, there is a guard-house of bostangees commanded by a captain dependent on the bostangee-bachi, and a guard-house of janizaries commanded by an officer dependent on the janizary-aga of Constantinople.

The burying grounds of Scutari are the handsomest of the Ottoman empire, from their extent, the magnificence of the tombs, and the height and closeness of the trees. The rich Turks of Constantinople, from a sentiment of pride or piety, prefer being buried in Asia, which they consider as

a holy land, as a land belonging to the true believers; while the land of Europe, according to them, *is to fall one day into the hands of the christian powers, and be trodden on by the infidels.* These burying grounds are situated above the town, and extend to the east and to the south, towards the Sea of Marmora, and to the environs of the spot formerly occupied by Chalcedon.

The graves are very close to each other, and very diversified in their form. The poor Turks content themselves with erecting, at the two extremities of the grave, a simple sepulchral stone, without ornament and without inscription. Most frequently there are two slabs of marble sculptured and ornamented, one of which surmounted by a turban, similar to that which the man wore in his life time, presents an inscription indicating the age and profession of the deceased, and at the same time containing a panegyric or a sentence taken from the Koran: the other piece of marble is ornamented with a cypress tree in relief, or a vase of flowers. The letters are always in relief, and painted black or gilt. The graves of the women are distinguishable, from one of these slabs of marble, in lieu of presenting a turban, being commonly terminated in the form of a mushroom. Those of the rich have the circumference of the grave in masonry: some, similar to an antique sarcophagus, are raised about three feet, and composed of four pieces of marble, two flat ones of which form the sides of the tomb; those of the two extremities are surmounted by two pillars seven or

eight feet high, on one of which is seen a long inscription. The upper part of the sarcophagus is without a lid, and leaves exposed to view the earth which covers the body. A cypress tree is commonly planted at one of the extremities of every grave; which are so numerous and so close that they form a thick forest in the burying ground.

Half a league to the eastward of Scutari is the hill of Bourgourlou, the summit of which commands an extensive prospect, embracing the greater part of Constantinople, the Bosporus, the Sea of Marmora, numerous villages, and the ever verdant fields of Europe and Asia.

Half a league south of Scutari, on the sea-shore, is the imperial palace of Kavacserai. It was built by Amurat IV. but is now deserted. Although it was very agreeably situated and had fine gardens, yet the last Sultans have preferred their palaces on the channel, because in summer the current of air which comes regularly every day from the Black Sea, produces a coolness which is enjoyed much less at Kavacserai: besides, a place so near to the cemeteries of Scutari was much more calculated for meditation than for recreation and pleasure.

Constantinople, including the suburbs, is supposed to contain half a million of inhabitants; of whom three hundred thousand are Turks, one hundred thousand Greeks, and the remainder Jews, Armenians and Franks, or strangers from all the European nations.

The city is frequently visited by the plague, which, however, excites but little alarm, and Turkish indifference counteracts all efforts to subdue this dreadful epidemical disorder. The symptom first perceived is a painful sensation, resembling the prick of a lancet or the sting of an insect. Soon after an obtuse pain is felt in the head; a fever ensues and in the course of twenty four hours, tumours make their appearance in the groins and armpits. If the disease is to prove fatal, the patient never again falls asleep, but the tumours and fever increase until death ensues. Death generally takes place before the suppuration of the tumours; if they arrive at maturity, it is not to be apprehended.

It is communicated only by contact. Fruits or humid substances do not retain or communicate the infection, but all dry substances and living animals convey it. In the course of the malady, the patient must abstain from gross food and fruits, and live on the most meagre diet. It is believed that strong odours are of great utility to prevent taking the disease. From the year 1783 to 1785, it swept away 100,000 children and young people. The plague is generally supposed to originate in Alexandria. It disappears in extreme warm weather.

Constantinople has often been exposed to great conflagrations. In 1782, a fire consumed from seven to eight thousand houses. On the fifth of August, 1784, more than ten thousand buildings were laid in ashes, and towards the end of the same

year, sixteen hundred houses and mosques were burnt down.

The Sultan always assumes the direction on these occasions. If the fire is in the city, he ascends the tower of the Janizaries, if at Galata, Pera or Tophana, he passes the harbour, and mounts the tower of Galata. From these heights he overlooks Constantinople and the suburbs; surveys the progress of the conflagration, and issues his orders to the guard to pull down, or blow up buildings, and to take such other measures as he may deem necessary to stop its ravages. At all hours of the night, amid storms of wind and rain, the Sultan never fails to faithfully discharge this duty.

The trade of Constantinople is chiefly in the hands of the Jews, Armenians, and Greeks; and its commerce is carried on by foreigners of all nations, who are confounded under the general name of Franks. No restrictions are laid on commerce in Turkey, except in the articles necessary for the support of human life; the exportation of which is sometimes prohibited, especially from Constantinople, where alone the prohibition is rigorously enforced. The port alone is capable of holding twelve hundred ships, and the whole of the Canal, from the mouth of the Hellespont to the entrance of the Black Sea, is continually filled with the vessels of different nations. Did not the mischievous genius of the Turks lead them to stifle conceptions and paralyse industry; did not their anti-social religion impose silence on reason and philosophy, no city on the globe would be better calculated to

serve as an emporium to an extensive commerce, than Constantinople. The caravans of Asia and the ships of Europe and America would succeed each other, without interruption, for the purposes of effecting exchanges, advantageous to all nations. If the Bosporus and Hellespont belonged to an industrious civilized power; if they made part of a vast commercial empire, Constantinople necessarily would become the metropolis of the world.

But in the present state of affairs, this commerce is limited, compared with that of Smyrna, nevertheless the neighbouring countries are so fertile and so productive, that they supply not only the numerous inhabitants of the capital, but many articles for exportation.

The chief exports are wool, camels' hair, goats' hair, cotton, buffalo's hides and tongues, hare skins, morocco, raw silk, manufactures of silk, wax, box wood, copper, orpiment, hartshorn, peltry, horse-hair, nutgalls, carpets, madder, yellow berries, saf-flower, saffron, gum-arabic, asafœtida, galbanum, oil-stones, emery, licorice, goat-skins, wine, tallow, ebony, sword-blades, shagreen-skins, alum, anni-seed, sponges, currants, raisins, figs, salep, gum adragant, senna, mastick, scammony, coloquintida, mohair yarn, valonia, and kermes.

Wool forms the principal article of exportation from Constantinople, and the second from all the Levant. It is estimated that the price of the wools which the French merchants have sent to Marseilles amounted in some years to from 1,500,000 to

2,000,000 livres. They come from the environs of the Bosporus, from the Propontis, and from the Hellespont, as well as from Rumelia, Bulgaria and the southern coast of the Black Sea. The slaughter houses of the city alone furnish a considerable quantity.

In Turkey are bred two sorts of sheep, that with a broad tail, and that with a common tail. The former is the larger, its fleece is less fine, and its tail receives such a quantity of fat, that it sometimes weighs upwards of ten pounds. The wool of the plain-tailed sheep of Bulgaria, which comes to Constantinople by the way of Varna, is the most esteemed. The wools of Bosnia are reckoned to be of a quality superiour to all those of the Levant: they are conveyed on the backs of mules or horses to Spalatro, Zera, and Ragusa, whence they go by sea to Venice. The wools of Walachia and of the north of Servia are generally spread through all Germany.

All the wools of Turkey are, in general, of an indifferent quality, and little fit for the manufacture of fine plain cloths. Nevertheless, when they are picked and mixed with the fine wools of Spain and Roussillon, the traders of Languedoc find means to make with them first and second *londrins*, which they send to Marseilles, and thence to all the seaport towns of the Levant, where there is a considerable consumption of them.

Camels' Hair. In the cold countries of Asia Minor and of Persia, camels have, during the win

ter, a tolerable abundance of a fine, silky wool, which falls off every year at the beginning of the summer. The most esteemed is brought from Persia, by the caravans of Erivan, Tiflis, Erzerum, and Tocat. There are three kinds; the black, the red, and the grey. The black is the dearest, and the grey is worth only half the price of the red.

This wool or hair is employed in the manufacture of hats, and must not be confounded with another wool, longer, more silky, and finer, which is found in Persia, and which is produced in plenty, by a goat, on the mountains of Kerman.

Goats' Hair. On the hills and mountains of the environs of Angora, is bred a goat smaller than the common European goat, with pendulous ears and short legs, whose white fleece, long and very fine, is carefully spun by the inhabitants of the country, and partly employed by them in the manufacturing of the stuffs, known under the name of serges, camlets, and *chalis* of Angora.

The Angora goats have much affinity, as to the fineness of their hair, to those of Kerman and those of Cashmere. Both of them inhabit elevated places, cold in winter and very warm in summer, and are taken great care of, by the shepherds, who frequently wash and comb them.

Cotton is cultivated in the south and west part of the Propontis, in the environs of the Hellespont and the southern part of Anatolia. The white and the red dyed-spun cotton of Adrianople, former-

ly enjoyed a very great reputation; but, for some time past, a preference is given to that of Larissa in Greece, and to those of the environs of Smyrna, and to some towns of the interiour of Asia Minor.

Buffalo's Hides. The buffaloe is in very great plenty throughout the east: it serves for tillage; it is made to turn the stones of mills, and wheels for the raising of water from wells. It is stronger than the ox, and more generally employed. Although it delights more particularly in aquatic or marshy places, on the banks of rivers, it nevertheless thrives every where, and acquires a size above that of oxen. The flesh is tough, accompanied by an odour of musk, which renders it by no means agreeable food.

The hide of the buffalo is much thicker and far more substantial than that of the ox; it weighs from eighty to a hundred pounds, and even more. A great quantity of them come from Rumelia, Bulgaria, Bessarabia, Walachia, and Moldavia, and a very few from the interiour of Asia Minor. The hides of the males are more esteemed than those of the females. Those intended for Marseilles and Ancona are merely salted, but such as are carried to Leghorn and Messina, have been dressed and tanned with the cup of the Velani oak.

Buffalo's Tongues, prepared and smoaked in Rumelia, are held in tolerable estimation. The French and Italians purchase a great quantity.

Hare Skins. The hare is so common throughout Asia Minor, Rumelia, and Bulgaria, that it is pursued for its skin, and many hundreds of bales are shipped from Constantinople annually.

Morocco or Turkey Leather. The manufactories of Morocco, of Gallipoli, of the Dardanelles and some towns in Anatolia, are the most renowned in the east. They dress the skins of the goats killed in the capital and those which are dispatched from Rumelia, and the interiour of Asia. Almost all the towns in Turkey also manufacture some, because the consumption of them is every where considerable. The Turks wear no other shoe-leather than morocco; the black and the violet serve for the Jews and Armenians; the Greeks employ more generally the red: this is also the colour of the Janizaries and of the common people. The rich Mussulmen, both men and women, all wear yellow shoes. Yellow is strictly prohibited to tributary subjects, such as the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews.

It is said that the Turks learned from the Algerines, to dye morocco red, which is known to be very beautiful among them, and for which they employ madder-root, kermes, and a very little cochineal.

Silk is brought by caravans from Persia, but nearly all the provinces of Turkey produce it abundantly. That of Bursa is most esteemed; it is generally white, and the thread is fine and tolera-

bly supple. This silk supplies the numerous manufactories of the town, those of the capital, and of Scio, and some is even sent to Aleppo and Damascus.

The environs of Nicomedia, Nicea, and all the country situated between Olympus and the Propontis, are covered with white mulberry-trees, cultivated with care and intelligence. The inhabitants prefer keeping them dwarfs, in order to strip them more easily of their leaves. The silk of Adrianople and Bulgaria is almost all white, and, in point of quality, approaches that of Bursa.

Box-Wood is abundant in some places of the south coast of the Black Sea; but the finest is to be found on Mount Caucasus.

Copper. Such a quantity of copper is drawn from the mines which are situated to the south of Trebisond, in the environs of Tocat, and in several places in Asia Minor, that Turkey is able to pay with this metal for a part of the merchandise which she draws from India. The Turks make a very great consumption of it for their artillery, for their table and kitchen utensils, for their mangals, their chandeliers, and many other articles; still a great deal is exported.

Orpiment is drawn from the interiour of Anatolia. This mineral substance, mixed with a bolary earth, is employed throughout Turkey, at the baths, as a depilatory, for men and women of all conditions.

Peltry. The finest furs come from Russia and Poland; some are likewise drawn from Georgia, Circassia, the Crimea, Walachia, and from all the northern coast of the Black Sea. Those of the black fox and sable martin are the most esteemed.

Kermes, is a kind of little animal, found in great plenty in many parts of Asia and the south of Europe, on an evergreen dwarf oak. The kermes, called also scarlet grain, and by the Greeks, coccos baphica, by the Latins, vermiculus, by the French, sometimes vermillion, or grain de gale, or vermeil, is about the size of a juniper-berry, round, smooth and glossy; of a beautiful red colour and full of a mucilaginous juice, of the same dye; it is found adhering to the bark, on the stem and branches of a peculiar sort of scarlet oak, which is indigenous in Greece, and with which the mountains of Livadia are covered.

Gum Galbanum is gathered in great quantities at the foot of mount Olympus, in the island of Cyprus; also in Syria, and on mount Ida.

The principal articles imported into Constantinople are tin, tin plates, shalloons, woollen cloths, silk velvets, cotton goods, indigo, cochineal, dye woods and drugs, pepper, vitriol, rum, sugar, arms, cutlery, clocks, watches, jewelry, rabbit skins, glass, furniture of all kinds, coffee, lead, ginger, cinnamon, verdigrease, sal ammoniac, gunpowder, cheese, shot, musket-balls, musk, ambergris, rich furs, nails, precious stones, pearls, cloves, nutmegs, pimento, earthern ware, hard ware, porcelain, steel, and paper.

Tin has for a length of time been a standing article in Turkey. The inhabitants make great use of tinned dishes and vessels, and a large proportion of their current money is deeply alloyed with that metal. The annual consumption in the city is about four hundred barrels.

Tin Plates, have not a very extensive sale. They are used chiefly for water-conduits and kitchen utensils.

Shalloons have been for ages in great demand, being much worn by the Orientals.

Cloth has a very extensive sale; many hundred bales are annually made use of, principally the manufacture of France and Germany.

Muslins are in great demand; those from India and Germany have the largest sale. Manchester stuffs are but little used in Constantinople.

Printed Cottons for furniture are made use of by all classes, therefore the consumption is great. Chintzes with large flowers are preferred. The Turks have a great aversion to regular figured patterns.

Seersuckers and India Ginghams are worn both by males and females, in the summer; seersuckers with broad orange stripes are those most esteemed.

Cotton Yarn. The consumption of Cotton twist amounts to three or four hundred bales annu-

ally. Formerly the yarn used in Constantinople and its environs to a considerable distance, was sent from India, but now England supplies a principal part. The demand for this article increases, from the great number of silk stuffs manufactured in the city, all of which are wefted with cotton twist. This fabric is very handsome, and is often flowered with gold and silver. It is in general made by Armenians and is worn all over Turkey.

Indigo is an article very much used, from the immense number of blue dresses worn by the inhabitants, particularly by the Greeks and Armenians.

Cochineal is also much used, and the quantity annually sold is estimated at sixty barrels.

Dye woods of all kinds meet with a ready sale, but those of Campeachy are preferred.

Earthen or Liverpool Ware. Common plates, soup plates and dishes of the usual sizes are the articles most wanted; in fact scarcely any others find a sale.

Porcelain. What the Turks consume of this article chiefly comes from Germany.

The mode of carrying on trade in Constantinople is a great drawback to its prosperity. Every merchant has from two to four Jew brokers into whose hands their affairs are entrusted. The brokers

purchase and receive, sell and deliver the goods, and negociate all money transactions. They are in general qualified to speak all the languages used in the Levant, of which most of the factors are ignorant.

ADRIANOPLE or Andrinople, called by the Turks, Edrene, the ancient Oresta, takes its name from Adrian, who founded or restored it. It is situated on the river Hebrus, or Maritza, twenty four leagues from its mouth, at the confluence of the Tunsa and the Harda, and rises gently on the side of a small hill. It is of a circular form, surrounded with walls and towers, and is about five miles in compass. The houses are good, but the streets are narrow and unequal.

The bazar, called Ali Bassa, is an arched building about half a mile long, with six gates and a great number of shops, that are occupied by Turks, Armenians, and Jews. The pavement is kept remarkably neat and the shops very clean. Idle people of all sorts walk here for their diversion, or amuse themselves with drinking coffee, or sherbet, which are cried about as fruit, sweetmeats, and cakes are in our theatres. Most of the rich tradesmen in this exchange are Jews. Near it is the Sherski, a narrow street a mile in length, covered on the top to keep out the rain, that merchants may meet in all weathers. The Besisten, or Bizestein, is another exchange built upon pillars and covered like the former, where all sorts of horse-furniture is sold, and is seen every where glittering

with gold, rich embroidery, jewels, pistols, and sabres, especially when the court is there.

There are four mosques in the city, the principal of which is that of Sultan Selim I., built by him of materials brought from the ruins of Famagusta, in the island of Cyprus. It is beautifully situated in the centre of the city and in the highest part of it, where it is seen on every side to great advantage. The first court has four gates and the innermost three. They are both of them surrounded with cloisters, with marble columns of the Ionic order, finely polished and of very lively colours. The whole pavement is of white marble, and the roof of the cloisters is divided into several cupolas and domes, with gilt balls on the top. In the midst of each court are fountains of white marble; and before the great gate of the mosque is a portico, with columns of verd antique, and five gates. The mosque is covered by one immense dome of vast height. On the inside it has two rows of galleries, supported by columns of red and white marble, with marble balustrades; the pavement is also marble covered with Persian carpets. The walls are encrusted with china, in flowers of the most lively colours. In the middle of this structure hangs a vast lamp, of silver gilt, and about two thousand of a smaller size, which have a splendid effect when all are lighted. Under the large lamp is a great pulpit of carved wood gilt, and just by a fountain to wash. In one corner is a little gallery enclosed with gilded lattices for the Sultan, and at the upper end is a niche, like an altar, raised two steps, and

covered with gold brocade. Before it stand two silver gilt candlesticks the height of a man. The outside of the mosque is adorned with high towers. Behind the mosque is another bazar full of shops, where poor artificers are lodged gratis.

The Grand Seignior's seraglio stands in a plain near the river Tunsa or Tungia. The grand vizier's palace is a common house, after the Turkish manner of building, which is two miles in compass, and has seven gates besides those of the gardens, which are several miles in circumference.

The city which is said to contain about 100,000 inhabitants, is under the government of a Mollah Cadi, who has an absolute authority in all civil and criminal matters.

The commerce of this place, favoured by the river that waters it, has drawn hither people from all nations. It is the residence of a Greek bishop, and the Grand Seignior sometimes visits the city, either for pleasure or safety, when the plague or war makes it necessary for him to leave Constantinople.

The adjacent country is very fertile, and supplies the town with all kinds of necessaries; and the wine in particular is reckoned among the best in Turkey.

THE

BOSPORUS OF THRACE

OR

CHANNEL OF CONSTANTINOPLE.

The Bosporus of Thrace, or Channel of Constantinople, is about twenty miles long and from six hundred to two thousand yards broad. It has a tortuous course between two chains of fertile hills, which are clothed with an exquisite variety of beautiful trees and shrubs. Throughout its whole extent, the highest state of cultivation prevails; the shores being covered with vine-yards, gardens and orchards, containing a great diversity of the finest fruits and flowers; several villages are interspersed, and numerous magnificent kiosks, whose porticoes reaching to the water's edge are supported by pillars of marble. In these pavilions of enjoyment and delight, the Sultan and his court, the foreign ministers, and most of the rich inhabitants of Constantinople pass the summer. The Turks, seated on sofas so situated as to receive the current of cool air which descends from the Black Sea, pass the whole day, in smoking, drinking coffee, casting their eyes on passengers, and rolling in their fingers chaplets of coral, agate, and precious stones.

On ascending the strait from Constantinople, the eye extends with pleasure over the suburbs of Galata, Tophana, Pera, Salybosari, and Fondacli or Fondakli, which presents itself in the form of an amphitheatre. Beyond this, are seen two palaces belonging to the Grand Seignior, one of which situated on a height, is in rather a dilapidated condition: the other, placed on the shore near the village of Bechik-tache, is kept up, and taken care of; it has extensive gardens, various edifices, and several little kiosks beautifully ornamented. The Sultan goes thither every year to spend a few days at the beginning of summer; he takes with him his Harem, pages, and most of his officers.

The village of Bechik-tache, together with those of Orta-keui, Kourou-tchesme, and Arnaoud-keui form, properly speaking, only one contiguous village, on the European shore, where are very many handsome houses, almost entirely built of wood, and variously painted; those belonging to the Turks, are white or red; those of the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, are of a blackish brown. The latter are not allowed to employ the colours of the Mussulmen. The castle of Roumili-Hissar, two leagues from Constantinople, is on a promontory called Kislar bouroun, woman's point: the ancient Hermea Prom. On the Asiatic shore, nearly opposite, is the castle of Anadoli-Hissar. In this place it was, that Darius established a bridge of boats in order to carry over his army when he made war against the Scythians. By this place too it was, that the crusaders, animated by a holy zeal, entered Asia,

in order to deliver the Holy Land from the yoke of the infidels.

Beyond this pass is the village of Tarapia, on the European shore, from whence the Black Sea is discovered.

Buyuk-dere, or Bojoukdere, or the Great Valley, is a village situated in the broadest part of the channel, on a sort of gulf, six miles from the Black Sea. The houses stand on the shore, and occupy near a mile in extent; those belonging to most of the ambassadors, built in the European taste, are remarkable for their elegance and the beauty of their gardens. This village is chiefly occupied by Europeans, Greeks, and Armenians. The Armenian women, here as elsewhere, live retired, and do not appear in the streets unveiled; the Greek women live with as little restraint as in the capital.

To the castle of Roumili-Hissar succeed the batteries of Roumili Kavak, Bojouk liman, Karipehe and the castle of Tanarika, at the entrance of the Black Sea. On the Asiatic shore, to Anadoli-Hissar succeed the batteries of Youcha, on a promontory, with twenty three guns and twelve mortars; Anadoli-Kavak, of thirty seven guns and fourteen mortars; Porias liman, of twenty three guns, and a fort near the entrance of the Black Sea.

Although the Asiatic coast is thickly populated, there are not as many splendid villas as on the European shore.

On the banks of this celebrated strait, which was also called the Mysian Bosporus, the ancients pro-

fusely scattered temples and shrines, and votive altars, attesting the unskilfulness, the terrors, the gratitude, and the devotion of the Greek navigators, who, after the example of the Argonauts, explored the dangers of the inhospitable Euxine. The remains of those antiquities were so numerous, even in the time of Tournefort, that he describes the coast "as covered by their ruins."

On these banks, tradition long preserved the memory of the palace of Phineus, infested by the obscene harpies; and of the Sylvan reign of Amycus, who defied the son of Leda to the combat of the Cæstus.

The situations of the castles on the European and Asiatic sides of the strait, have been assigned as the places where stood the fanes of Jupiter Serapis and of Jupiter Urius, called by Strabo, respectively, the temples of the Byzantines and of the Chalcedonians. The latter seems to have been the sanctuary held in supreme veneration. It was from this temple, as some writers maintain, that Darius surveyed the Euxine, as mentioned by Herodotus. It stood in a town called Hieron, which had a port that Jason entered, on his return from Colchis, and offered sacrifices to the twelve gods. Opposite Buyuk-dere, on the *Argyronian* cape, is a conspicuous eminence which bears the name of the Giant's mountain, on which once stood a temple of considerable magnitude.

The numerous temples which adorned the banks of the Bosporus have disappeared; but the features of nature remain the same; the awful chasm,

which, in remoter periods, conducted the waters of an immense ocean to overwhelm the territories of Ancient Greece, now affords a passage to the commercial fleets of the world, bearing the tributary wealth of nations, while its aspect then so fearful, presents every assemblage that can captivate the eye. The Bosporus of Thrace in whatever point of view it is considered, is unequalled in the interest that it it excites; whether with reference to the surprising nature of its origin; the number of local circumstances attached to its ancient history; the matchless beauty of its scenery; its extraordinary animal productions; the number of rare plants blooming amidst its towering precipices; its fleets and gondolas, towns, villages, groves, and gardens; the cemeteries of the dead, and the busy walks of the living; its painted villas, verandas, flowery terraces, domes, towers, quays, and mouldering edifices: all these, in their turn, excite and gratify curiosity; while the dress and manners of the inhabitants, contrasting the splendid costume and indolence of the east, with the plainer garb and activity of the west, offer to the stranger an endless source of reflection and amusement.

The first Turkish port on the European coast of the Black Sea is Ineada.

INEADA, Inada or Niada, is a small settlement on the Black Sea, at the head of a deep harbour, the northern shore of which is terminated by Cape Ineada. The inhabitants carry on a trade in the occasional supply of coffee, tobacco, fish, dried

beef, cheese, curd, fruit, and fresh water, to the Turkish mariners and other navigators of the Black Sea. An immense quantity of charcoal is made in the vicinity and sent to Constantinople, where it is almost the only article of fuel. Vessels frequenting this harbour, generally prefer its north side, where they find good anchorage, among gravel mixed with black sand. It is only exposed to winds from the east and south east; and is sufficiently spacious to contain a fleet.

On the northern side of the port, not far from the coffee-house, appears the ruin of an ancient mole, part of which is under water. On its western side, may be discovered the shafts of columns lying at the bottom of the sea.

BURGOS, or Bourgaz, situated at the head of the gulf of Bungos, or Foras, is a considerable place, and has a large trade with Constantinople, whither it exports wool, woollen cloths, buffalo hides, iron, corn, butter, cheese, and wine.

The gulf of Burgos, limited on the south by Cape Emeriah, is between four and five leagues wide, and runs in nearly the same distance. Beside Burgos, it has several good anchoring grounds, for the largest ships; the principal of which are Sizeboli, Tchingana, Ahiolu, and Messouri.

SIZEBOLI, the ancient Apollonia, stands on a peninsula, and offers the best road where men-of-war can moor. It is inhabited solely by Greeks, who export wood and wine.

TCHINGANA, is a modern Turkish village, and exports a great deal of timber and wood. The road is tolerably well protected, but dangerous on account of its loose bottom.

AHIOLU, is surrounded with salt marshes furnishing salt of an inferior quality, the revenue of which belongs to the Grand Seignior.

MESSOURI, the site of the ancient Mesembria, on the north shore of the gulf, is on a peninsula surrounded with rocks, and accessible only by an isthmus, which being very low and narrow, is overflowed by the sea, during violent storms. Small vessels are built there entirely of the oak of the neighbouring country.

BULGARIA.

BULGARIA is bounded on the north by the Danube and Walachia, on the east by the Black Sea, on the south by Mount Hæmus, which separates it from Rumelia and Macedonia, and on the west by Servia. It was formerly called the Lower Mœsia, but derives its present name from the Bulgarians, by whom it was conquered. Its extent is about two hundred and eighty miles in length, and one hundred and eighty in breadth. The country in general is mountainous, but the plains and vallies, washed by the Danube and the rivers that flow into it, are rich and fertile, and produce corn and wine in great abundance. The mountains too, are far from being barren, and in particular afford excellent pasturage. Thus, that of Stara Plamina, though bare and desolate towards its summit, is extremely fertile in the middle and lower regions. The inhabitants are mostly christians of the Greek church; they are mixed, however, with Mahometans and Jews. Their language is the Sclavonic. The present inhabitants, though descended from ancestors, who distinguished themselves by their martial achievements, are occupied in graziery, agriculture, and mechanics. This country is famous for a gate constructed by the Emperor Trajan in the hills of Sophia, among steep rocks and precipices almost inaccessible, in commemoration of his having marched with his

army along a road, formed by himself, through places that were before impervious. It consists of two stone pillars, with an arch over them, representing a gate; but it is now in a mutilated and ruinous state.

The province contains 1,800,000 inhabitants, and is divided into the four Sangiacships of Sardic, Bibin, or Widin, Nicopoli and Silistria. Sophia is the capital of Bulgaria. The towns on the sea-coast are Varna, Kalekria, Balchak, Mangolia, Keustengi, and Kara-Kerman.

SOPHIA is a very large and populous trading town, well built, but without walls. It is in the Sangiacat of Sardic, on a large beautiful plain, and surrounded with distant mountains: but the streets are narrow, uneven and dirty, being paved only in the foot way. However every house has a garden well planted with fruit trees and shrubs. A branch of the Ischa, the Esker of D'Anville, in some places runs along the skirts of the town, and in others passes through it. The principal part of the traders are Greeks or Armenians. It is the residence of a Begler-beg or viceroy, and was built by the emperor Justinian, out of the ruins of the ancient city of Sardica, not far distant, which was the metropolis of the Mediterranean Dacia, and acquired from the Bulgarians the name of Triaditzza.

Sophia is one of the greatest thoroughfares in Turkey, as all who travel from Constantinople to Ragusa, Venice, or into Hungary, must pass through

it. This town is famous for its hot baths, which possess great medical virtues. It is two hundred and eighty miles west north west of Constantinople, and contains forty six thousand inhabitants.

VARNA, Vrana, or Urana, is the most commodious port in the province of Bulgaria. It is at the mouth of a small river, in the vicinity of a large lake, to which it gives name, and was formerly an important fortress belonging to the templars, and the residence of the Grand Prior. The town contains sixteen thousand inhabitants, consisting of Turks, Greeks, and Armenians, is surrounded by a ditch and defended by an old castle. The exports of buffalo's hides, wool, corn, fowls, butter, eggs, and cheese to Constantinople are very great, as a large portion of the latter articles, consumed in the capital, is drawn from thence.

Some suppose Varna to be the site of the ancient Tiberiopolis, others of Dionysiopolis, but D'Anville, of Odessus. Near this town an important battle was fought in 1544, between the Turks and Hungarians, in which Ladislaus, king of Hungary, lost his life.

To Varna succeeds Kalekria, with a good road, Balchak or Baltchik,* Mongolia, Monkolia or Monkalia,* Keustengi, Keustendge, or Kiustinge,* all of which export provisions and wool to Constantinople.

* The positions of the ancient cities of Crami, Calatis, and Constantiana.

KARA-KERMAN, or Kara-Erman, is a large village on the beach, defended by a square castle, flanked with round towers. Several shoals off the port make it necessary for vessels to anchor a league south of the village. The principal export is corn.

ANATOLIA.

ANATOLIA, Natolia, or Anadoli, is bounded on the north by the Black Sea, on the east by the Euphrates, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by the Archipelago, Sea of Marmora and Bosporus of Thrace. It is computed to be about six hundred miles in its greatest extent from east to west, and three hundred and fifty from north to south.

Anatolia was anciently denominated Asia simply, or by way of peculiar excellence, as being the best spot in that part of the world, and adorned with many opulent cities and considerable states. Afterwards it was distinguished from the whole Asiatic region, by the epithet of Minor or Lesser, and accordingly denominated Asia Minor; it derived the name of Anatolia from its eastern situation with regard to Europe, and on the same account is still called the Levant.

This large peninsula is usually divided into four districts, Karamania, Alodula, Amasia and Anatolia Proper.

ANATOLIA PROPER.

ANATOLIA PROPER extends on the Black Sea, from the Canal of Constantinople to the river Kisil-Irmak or Kizilermark, the ancient Halys, which separates it from Amasia, and is bounded on the south by Karamania. It is much the largest division of Anatolia and contains the provinces of Paphlagonia, Galatia, Phrygia, Lydia, Doris, Caria, Ionia, Æolis, Mysia, and Bithynia.

The air of Anatolia is healthy, and the soil irrigated by numerous rivers, is in general fertile, producing wheat, barley, tobacco, cotton, grapes, and fruits of various kinds. Most of the inhabitants are Mahometans; with a considerable portion of christians, particularly of the Greek church. There are likewise many Armenians, and some Roman Catholics. This territory is governed by a Beglerbeg, who resides at Kiutaja, under whom are several sangiacs. The principal rivers, which fall into the Euxine, have their rise in the chain of Taurus and are the Sakaria, Falios, Partheni, and Kisil-Irmak. Angora is the largest city and the chief sea-ports are Erekli, Amastra, Ghydros, Ineboli, and Sinope.

ANGORA, Angura, Ankora, Ankeri, or Enguiri, and formerly Ancyra, is one of the best cities of Anatolia. It is in a lofty situation, and has many vestiges of its ancient magnificence and splendour.

In the reign of Nero it was the metropolis of Galatia. Caracalla was a great benefactor to it, and in his time it was called Antoniana. The castle was a triple enclosure, and the walls are formed of large pieces of white marble, and a stone resembling porphyry, on which are numerous inscriptions, but most of them are now illegible. The streets abound with old marble, porphyry and red and white jasper columns. Many of the houses and the walls of the city are built of pieces of the shafts of pillars, bases, capitals and entablatures. The inhabitants are estimated at 100,000; of which 91,000 are Mahometans, and 9000 Christians, who have among them seven churches. It is the see of a Greek and of an Armenian archbishop.

The trade is chiefly in Angora stuffs and yarn of which the best shalloons are manufactured, made of the fine hair of a particular breed of goats, which like that of the cats occurs in no other country. The soil of the adjacent country is a fine red marle.

Angora is famous for the battle between Tamerlane and Bajazet, which has immortalized the glory of the former, and the shame of the latter.

EREKLI, Bend-Erekli, or Eregri, stands at the head of a gulf on the western side of Cape Baba. It is the site of the powerful maritime Greek city of Heraclea Pontica, which maintained its independence as a republic, governed by its own magistrates, between the two powerful sovereigns Mithridates and Nicomedes, and served as a

common barrier. Xenophon and Pausanias say that Heraclea was founded by a colony from Megara, to which were joined Bœotians, natives of Tanagra; but Strabo makes it to have been a colony of the Milesians. There are many medals preserved in the cabinets of Europe, struck by that city in honour of the Roman emperors, with a Hercules on the reverse, by which it appears that he was the patron of it; and at the time Cotta, who served under Lucullus, plundered and reduced Heraclea to ashes, he took away a magnificent statue of Hercules, which stood in the market place, with all his attributes, of pure gold.

When Xenophon's fleet arrived there from Cotyora, he observes, that "they came to anchor near the peninsula of Acheruscias, where Hercules is said to have descended to bring up Cerberus, and where they shew at this day, a chasm two stadia in depth, as a monument of his descent."

Heraclea was famous for its splendid library, its temple, and public places, adorned with a number of fine statues. It received the name of Penderachi after it became subject to the Greek empire. The Genoese and Venetians had commercial establishments in this town for a great number of years, but Erekli is now a mere village, where vessels occasionally stop for supplies, and has but little trade.

AMASTRA, Amasrah, or Amassero is the ancient Amastris, which stood partly on a high rocky island, and partly on the main, the channel

being crossed by a bridge, under which vessels passed, but which is now filled up, and forms a low isthmus. It was built by Amastres the neice of Darius and wife of Lysimachus, who gave it to his wife Arsinoe, and by her the government was entrusted to Hercules. Soon after it became very considerable, and put itself under the protection of Ariobarzanus, the son of Mithridates. When the Romans carried their arms into Asia, Amastris was taken by Triarius, the lieutenant of Cotta. From the Romans it passed to the Greek emperors; it was afterwards taken by the Venetians; then the Genoese monopolized the trade; from them it became the possession of the Turks; and having lost its commercial consequence, it is now in ruins. The town is surrounded by a wall, with round towers; and at each side of the isthmus is a port for small vessels.

GHYDROS, Kitros, Kadros, or Kudros, the ancient city of Cytorus, is situated on a part of the coast of Paphlagonia, which is inclined from the south west to the north east, between the promontory of Keremhi or Kerempi, the Carambis of the Greeks, and the port of Erekli; it is thought to have been founded by a colony of Milesians. According to Strabo it had been a port of the inhabitants of Sinope. In its vicinity was a mountain, which produced a beautifuly veined box-tree, celebrated in the Georgics of Virgil. Its foundation is ascribed to Cytor, son of Phryxus; and it was one of the four towns which formed the estate of Amas-

tris. Some writers have asserted that it was here that Xenophon embarked his army, on board the fleet, furnished by the merchants of Sinope and Heraclea, on his return with the ten thousand Greeks, from the disastrous expedition of Cyrus against his brother Artaxerxes; but the port where that fleet rendezvoused was Cotyora, which in Arrian's time was no more than a small village, situated on the eastern side of Cape Vona, north west of Cerasus, now called Keresoun.

INEBOLI, or Ainehboli, is now an inconsiderable village, but was a place of considerable consequence during the period when the Greeks monopolized the trade of the Euxine. It was then called Abonitichos, afterwards Inopolis.

SINOPE, Sinob, or Sinoub is the most important place on the coast. It is strongly situated on the narrow and low isthmus of a peninsula, six miles in circumference, which terminates in a considerable cape, forming a good harbour on each side of the city. Sinope is flanked by triangular and pentagonal towers; surrounded by a wall and defended by a castle; but both are in ruins, as well as the mole which forms one of the ports, in which the depth of water is twelve feet: it has a good road for large ships, and a dock-yard where Turkish vessels of war are built. The fleet of Xenophon anchored in Harmene, which both Strabo and Arrian mention as a sea-port, belonging to Sinope, from which, the former says it was distant fifty stadia, and the latter forty.

The antiquity of this town is traced to the time of the Argonauts, or according to Herodotus, at least to the time when the Cimmerians, flying from the Scythians, established themselves here. We find by Strabo that the inhabitants looked upon Autolycus, one of Jason's companions, to be the founder, whose statue, made by Sthenis, Lucullus carried away. Its first commencement, however, was feeble; but when it received a colony of Milesians, it rose to such a degree of power, that it founded other colonies on the coast of the Euxine, whilst it possessed all the advantages of liberty. The land above the town was fertile and disposed into gardens; the city was well built and adorned with a place of exercise, a market and magnificent porticoes. It was taken by Pharnaces, father of Mithridates, and made the capital of Pontus, and became the birth place of Mithridates. In the seventieth year before Christ, it was taken by the Romans under Lucullus, who delivered it from the yoke of the Cilicians and restored its liberty. After experiencing a variety of calamities under the tyranny of Pharnaces, Julius Cæsar, having vanquished this prince, re-established Sinope, and sent thither a Roman colony. It established a new era in commemoration of this happy event, and inscribed on its monuments the title of "Colonia Julia Felix Sinope." This colony was sent to Sinope in the year of Rome 709.

The town subsisted in a flourishing state under the Roman emperors. Its commerce, which was very considerable, and the convenience of its two

ports, contributed alike to its opulence and splendour. A particular worship was paid to Serapis at Sinope, and it also honoured Mercury as the God of commerce. Strabo and Pliny say, that Sinope, under the Roman emperors comprised in Paphlagonia, formed a part of the government of Bithynia. Paphlagonia, however, was detached from Bithynia, and formed a particular province during the reign of Constantine; but the town of Sinope was united with some other towns of Pontus, to form the province of Hellespont, in honour of Helena, the mother of Constantine.

When the emperor Heraclius divided the east into several departments, the town of Sinope was included in that of Armenia.

Christianity was received in this city towards the end of the third century. Turks only are permitted to reside within the walls. One of the faux-bourgs is inhabited by Greeks, with a metropolitan dependent on the patriarch of Constantinople. In the environs are some copper mines. Diogenes, the cynic, was a native of Sinope, but he was buried at Corinth.

Sinope furnished the ancient painters with a red earth, which was one of the four colours with which alone, Pliny tells us, Apelles, Echion, Melanthius and Nicomachus painted their immortal works. The other colours were white, yellow and black.

The whole peninsula of Sinope is cultivated and consists of pleasant fields and gardens. There are some little remains of the ancient grandeur of this city to be seen in the modern buildings, particular-

ly, pieces of marble columns are interspersed among the other stones in the walls; and in the Turkish burying place are a prodigious number of pedestals, bases and capitals, which those people have carried thither to erect and adorn their tombs. The adjacent country produces olives, grapes, good wheat and other grains.

The exports of Sinope and the other ports of Anatolia are olive oil, wine, cotton, Angora wool, figs, and various kinds of dried and preserved fruits, ship timber, and beautiful cabinet woods, which are manufactured into sofas and used for wainscotting the apartments of the houses in Constantinople.

A large portion of the wood and charcoal used for cooking and warming the houses in Constantinople is drawn from this coast. The country, covered with beeches, hornbeams, oaks, elms, walnut-trees, cherry-trees, pear-trees, pines, firs, chestnut-trees, plane-trees, lime-trees and box, furnishes the capital in profusion with all the wood necessary for joiner's work, and for the frame work of the houses.

Sinope is more within the reach of ship-building than any port in the Ottoman empire. Oak is extremely abundant, and the exportation of timber fit for the construction of line-of-battle ships is strictly prohibited. An officer of the Porte is incessantly employed in causing to be felled, squared, and conveyed to the arsenal, such wood as he judges fit for the service of the navy. For the construction of merchant vessels, private persons can dispose only of that which he rejects.

AMASIA.

AMASIA is bounded on the north by the Euxine and river Bathys, east by Armenia, south by Karamania and Alodolia, and on the west it is separated from Anatolia Proper, by the river Kizil-Irmak. It comprehends the ancient territories of Pontus Cappadocius, Pontus Palemoniacus, and Pontus Galaticus. The coast from the Kizil-Irmak to Cape Vona, is named Roum by the Turks, and from thence to the Bathys, Lazi.

The country is well watered and rich in cattle and fruits, but the exactions of the Turks have restrained industry, the inhabitants are consequently uncivilized, and now pay even scarcely a nominal obedience to the Porte.

The chief towns are Samsoun, Amasia, Uniah, Fatsa, Budjiah, Vona, Kerasount, Tireboli, Trebisond, Surmineth, Of, Rize, Mapoora, Athenab, Costrom, Laros, Gourieth, and Tocat.

SAMSOUN. After leaving the Halys, the shore of the sea forms a kind of gulf, to which the ancients gave the name of Amiseus Sinus, on which the town is situated. It was originally founded by an Athenian colony, and according to Arrian, called Amisus, but which, subjected in the sequel to the king of Pontus, was aggrandized by Mithridates with a quarter, called from the surname that he bore, Eupatoria. At present a mere village

preserves the site of a once flourishing city. The head of the gulf called Leuco-Syrorum Ancon, or the Creek of the White Syrians, receives the river Iris or Cassalmack, augmented by the Lycus, and Scylay or Geder, and which is called by the Turks Ekil, Jkil, or Ikil-Ermark, or the Green River. Ascending from the sea through the plain country, formerly known under the appellation of Phanaræa, by the course of the Iris, the town of Amasia is discovered.

AMASIA, the Amasieh, or Amnosan of the Turks, was the most considerable of the cities of Pontus, and is now the metropolis of the province of Amasia. It is situated among mountains, three miles distant from the river, and twelve leagues from the sea. The faces of some of these mountains have nearly half a mile of almost perpendicular height; and in one of these are several places cut in the solid rock, similar to a Hindoo Pagoda, which cannot be approached but by small, narrow, excavated passes. The river Cassalmack is too rapid for navigation. The houses are chiefly built of wood, though many are of stone covered with tiles. The greater part of the inhabitants are christians. The mosque has two lofty minarets, all built of hewn stone, and are very handsome structures. The hummums or baths are very extensive, built likewise of hewn stone, and surrounded with rows of trees and a high wall. The town can only be approached by two narrow passes, one on the north and the other on the south, both so steep and rug-

ged that they could easily be defended with a very small force. Very good white wine, something like sherry, is made in the environs, which produce a variety of excellent fruit. It has been customary for the eldest son of the Grand Seignior to reside at Amasia, till he is called to the throne. It gave birth to the famous Geographer, Strabo, who flourished in the century before the birth of Christ.

On the river Scylay, now called the Geder, which falls into the Iris near Amasia, stands Zeleh, the ancient Zela, which the defeat of the Romans under Triarius, and a victory of Julius Cæsar over Pharnaces, son of Mithridates, has illustrated. In the account which Cæsar gave to Amintius, one of his friends in Rome, of the rapidity and dispatch of this victory, he made use of only three words,—the celebrated Veni, vidi, vici. Zela was also distinguished for an establishment of the priesthood of Anaitis, a Persian divinity.

UNIAH, or Ounich, is the site of the ancient port of Œnoe, in the neighbourhood of which are large masses of pure alum.

FATSA, or Natisa is at the mouth of the Sidenus, and occupies the position of Polemonium, which probably owed this name to the first Polemon, who was established king of this country by Mark Anthony.

BADJIAH, and VONA the ancient Boona, are small ports on Cape Vona.

KERASOUNT, Keresoun, or Kyressoun, is the principal port of the Laziens. The town is well built, between two rocks, at the foot of a hill on the margin of the sea.

At the right of the entrance to the port, on the summit of a precipice, is a castle and fort, the work of the kings of Trebisond. The harbour is safe and convenient. The country is fertile and abounds with fruit.

The ancient city of Cerasus or Cerazunt, exists under the name of Kerasount, and although there be some room for dispute concerning the identity of Cerasus and a city called Pharnacia, there is more reason to ascribe the two names to one city, than to appropriate each to a several one.

Xenophon states, that when it was ascertained that a sufficient number of ships could not be procured at Trebisond to transport all the army, the sick, and those above forty years of age, together with the women, children and baggage, were put on board the vessels and the rest travelled by land. The third day they arrived at Cerazunt, a Greek city situated in the country of the Colchians, near the sea, and a colony of the Sinopeans, where they stayed ten days, during which, the soldiers were reviewed in their arms, and an account taken of their number, which amounted to eight thousand six hundred; being all that were saved out of about ten thousand. The rest were destroyed by the enemy and the snow, and some by sickness on the march from the plains of Babylon.

Cerasus was the place from whence Lucullus, in his return from his expedition against Mithridates, brought cherry trees into Italy, in the year of Rome 680; one hundred and twenty years after that period, they were carried into Britain. They seem to have had their name from this city or the city from them. Tournefort tells us, that he found all the hills in the neighbourhood of Cerasus covered with cherry trees, growing naturally.

TIREBOLI, Tirvoli, or Intraboli, stands at the mouth of a small river of that name, in which we recognise the ancient city of Tripolis. There are extensive copper mines near this town, from whence large quantities of that metal were formerly procured.

TREBISOND, Tarabason or Terabezoun, was founded by a colony of Sinope, descended from the Milesians. The town is built on the sea-side, at the foot of a little hill, pretty steep: its walls are almost square, high, embattled, and, though they are not of the first ages, yet it is very probable they stand upon the foundations of the ancient enclosure, which gave this place the name of Trapezium or Trapezus, the Greek appellation for a table, which the form of the city resembled, being a parallelogram. The present walls are built of the debris of the ancient edifices, as appears by old pieces of marble, set in several parts, and whose inscriptions are not legible because they are too high. The town is large, but not well peopled; more of the ground is covered with groves

and gardens than houses; and the houses, though well built, are but one story high. The castle which is large, but very much neglected, is situated on a flat and commanding eminence, with a deep and wide fosse, cut in the rock. The inscription that is over the gate, the arch of which is a semicircle, shews that the emperor Justinian repaired the edifices of the city.

The port of Trebisond, called Platana, is to the east of the town, and was built by Arrian, who in his Periplus of the Euxine Sea, says that he was making a port there; for, before, there was no more than a station, where ships could ride at anchor with safety in the summer time. This port is now proper for nothing but saiques. The mole which the Genoese built there, out of the ruins of Arrian's, is almost destroyed, and the Turks give themselves very little trouble about repairing such works. Trebisond derives its historical fame more from the circumstance of its hospitable reception of the 10,000 Greeks, after their celebrated retreat, than for having been the metropolis of that portion of the Lower empire. From the Romans it was taken by the Scythians or Tartars, in the time of Valerian. The Greek emperors became afterwards masters of Trebisond, and erected it into a principality; Alexus Comnenus took possession of it in the year 1204. After the French and Venetians took Constantinople, this principality, or, as it is sometimes called, empire, continued till the year 1462, when it was taken by Mahomet II., who carried David Comne-

nus and all his family prisoners to Constantinople, where they were mostly put to death.

The suburbs, which are much more spacious than the city, are chiefly inhabited by Greeks and Armenians, who are allowed the free exercise of their religion. The country abounds with olive trees and vines, which produce excellent oil and tolerable good wine. Trebisond has considerable trade; caravans, from the interiour of Persia and the borders of the Caspian Sea, bring a variety of articles, which with the products of the surrounding country are exported to Constantinople, Odessa, the ports of the Crimea and Taganrock. The exports are figs and other dried fruits, nardek, wine, ebony, red wood for furniture, box-wood, cotton, hazel nuts, walnuts, large quantities of copper, copper vessels and candlesticks, caveare, India goods, Persian silks and carpets, soda, saffron, madder, nutgalls, chintzes, cotton cloths, woollen fabrics, skins, oriental turquois, precious stones and timber. The imports are iron and other merchandise of Russia, salt, wheat, the manufactures and products of Europe, and the islands in the Archipelago, usually found in the market of Constantinople.

SURMINETH, Of, Rize or Rizeth the Rhizeum of the ancients, Mapoora, Athenab, Athenah or Athenath originally Athenæ, though it had nothing in common with Athens but the name; Castram, Laros, Gounieth or Goonieth, which has a good port and stands on the site of Asparus,

are all small villages, the inhabitants of which are in general fishermen, but have some trade with Constantinople and the other towns on the coast.

TOCAT, or Tokat in the pachalic of Sinos, was anciently a city of Pontus Polemoniac, called Berisa.

It is situated above Amasia on the river Tosanlu, a branch of the Iris, in the corner of a valley and almost surrounded with mountains, which afford quarries of marble, and is well supplied with water, from innumerable springs. On the top of a lofty rocky mountain, on the west side of the town, are the remains of an old castle. The streets are well paved but frequently built on uneven ground. The houses are tiled and mostly built of wood. It is the residence of a cadi, a waiwode, and an aga, commanding a thousand janizaries and some spahis. The inhabitants are computed to consist of twenty thousand Turkish families, four thousand Armenians, about four hundred families of Greeks, and many Jews. The Armenians have seven churches and the Greeks one. It is the see of a metropolitan, dependent on the archbishop of Nicsara or Neocæsarea, an ancient city, almost ruined, about two days journey from Tocat.

For thirty or forty miles round Tocat the country is chiefly inhabited by Armenian Christians, who work in several branches of mechanical trade, particularly in copper, all manner of vessels, candlesticks, &c. of that metal, being made there and exported to Constantinople and Egypt. There are

also manufactures of silk and yellow Turkish leather. About a mile from the city is a river over which is a beautiful stone bridge. This river waters a very large and fertile plain that produces great quantities of saffron, which is extremely profitable, it being sent to the Indies where it is purchased at a high price. Fruits are abundant and the grape vines are excellent. The Armenians make an excellent wine, resembling claret in flavour, but stronger.

Tocat may be considered as the centre of the trade of Asia Minor. The copper is obtained from the mines of Gumiscana, at the distance of three days' journey from Trebisond, and from those of Castan Boab, yet richer, and situated ten days' journey from Tocat, on the west, towards Angora. The Caravans lodge at Tocat, which come from Constantinople, Smyrna, Persia, Diarbec, and Bagdad. Those from Diarbec arrive in eighteen days, from Sinope in six, Bursa in twenty, and from Smyrna in twenty seven.

TERRITORIES OF RUSSIA

ON THE

BLACK SEA AND SEA OF AZOF.

The frontier line of Russia, on the Black Sea extends from the mouth of the Danube, to the river Bathys or Bathus, the north eastern boundary of ancient Armenia, and is divided by the four governments of Bessarabia, Cherson, Taurida, and Georgia.

GOVERNMENT OF BESSARABIA.

The territory lying between the rivers Dniester, Danube and Pruth, including a part of Moldavia and the province of Bessarabia, which formerly belonged to the Ottoman empire, and was called by the Turks Budziac, or Boodjack, constitutes the government of Bessarabia, and was anciently the country of the Getes, Dacians and Peucinians. The greatest portion of the inhabitants are one of the numerous tribes of Tartars, of whom some have fixed habitations in villages, and others lead a kind of wandering life, subsisting on the flesh of their oxen

and horses, the milk of their mares and the cheese that is made from it. In their manners, religion and customs, they resemble the Crim Tartars. The chief towns are Ismail, Akerman and Kilia.

The Danube, in German the Donau, and called by the Greeks the Ister, the largest river in Europe, flows above sixteen hundred miles, collects the tribute of sixty rivers, washes the walls of upwards of forty cities, and is at length through five mouths,* received into the Euxine, between Bulgaria and Bessarabia.

It has its source in the court yard of the palace of the prince of Furstenburg, near the small town of Doneschingen, in the grand Dutchy of Baden. The embouchures from south to north are Portechtcha Boghasi, Ialova Koutchouk Boghasi, Ghedrille Boghasi, Sounne Boghasi, and Kili Boghasi.

The Sounne Boghasi is the most frequented, being two hundred yards wide, with a depth of three fathoms, its stream running out three miles an hour.

Between Buda and Belgrade, the Danube has depth of water sufficient for the largest ships; but below the mouth of the Save it is crossed by cataracts, which obstruct its navigation to the sea.

ISMAIL, or Ismailow is situated on the north bank of the Danube, thirty three miles from the

* Gibbon mentions six mouths, Tuckey, seven; but there are only five laid down on the celebrated map of D'Anville and the large chart of Ruzzi-Zannori and Lappie, published in Paris in 1809: Herodotus also says it has but five.

sea. The town measures about a mile towards the land and half a mile by the side of the Danube. It is surrounded by a plain wall as a fortification. The ramparts are in general eighteen feet high and in some places twenty five. The moat is from thirty to forty feet deep. This city is celebrated for the long siege it sustained and its ultimate capture by storm, in the year 1790, by the Russian army under the command of General Souvarof.

Ismail being most happily situated, as the entrepot for the various products of agriculture, the manufactories and the mines of the numerous and extensive countries watered by the Danube and its tributary branches; and for the articles of foreign merchandise received in exchange, destined for the consumption of millions of inhabitants, must ultimately become one of the great emporiums of the world.

The gates of the Euxine having been thrown open by the giant arm of civilization, which barbarian violence had closed for centuries, the Nile* of Europe and the natural channel of commerce for a large portion of her dominions, will rival the pride of Egypt in the most celebrated period of its commercial history.

The uniform policy, which the sovereigns of Russia have pursued, to encourage the maritime enterprise of their subjects, and to advance the trade of that mighty empire, will be extended to those new acquisitions, on the borders of the Danube and the Pruth.

* Herodotus compares the Danube to the Nile.

KILIA, or Kilia-Nova, stands on the left bank of the most northern mouth of the Danube, near the sea. It is a fortified town, but was taken during the campaign of Prince Potemkin in 1790. It contains between six and seven thousand inhabitants. The old town was situated on the eastern point of the island, opposite Kilia-Nova.

TARTAR BUNA is a small town at the head of the bay, or lake of Sassik, thirty two miles south west of Akerman.

AKERMAN, called by the Romans Julia Alba, and by the Moldavians Czetate Alba, or the White City, formerly Bialgorod, and the site of the ancient Hermonoctis, is pleasantly situated, on the western bank of the estuary of the river Niester and contains twenty thousand inhabitants. The Niester or Dniester was called by the ancients the Tyras, but in later ages this river assumed the name of Danaster, from which was formed that of Dniester. It rises in the Polish province of Podolia. After a course of six hundred miles it empties into the northern gulf of the Black Sea, separating Bessarabia from the province of Cherson. A bank before it forms two channels; that on the west being called the channel of Constantinople or Tzargrad, and the eastern, the channel of Otchakov. The first is three hundred yards broad, and the other one hundred and eighty; but neither have more than eight feet of water. Above the banks the river forms the Lake of Ovidora, six miles broad and upwards of twenty long.

The acquisition of the Polish provinces and the territory on both its banks to the shores of the sea, by Russia, renders this river very important to that empire. Although it is rapid and obstructed by shoals, there is no doubt but that these impedimênts may be removed or obviated by canals, which will render the river navigable for boats, nearly its whole length. When Akerman belonged to the Lithuanians, they navigated the Dniester, and transported grain from the upper provinces to the sea. The most dangerous place is at Jampol, where the river is traversed by a ledge of granite, but the constant action of the water has traced a channel, which can be passed without danger, when the water is not too high.

An Austrian ship-wright, who was commissioned by his government to try the navigation of this river, had a vessel built in 1796, suited to the nature of the stream. It was laden with Hungarian wines and some manufactures, and came down from Salerzy, in less than four weeks. It was eighty four feet long, fourteen broad and drew eighteen inches of water, when laden. The trial was made when the river was very low and the boatmen declared that they met with no obstacle. This vessel also returned up the river. It could carry from four to five hundred chetverts of corn, the conveyance of which by land, would require fifty waggons, as many yoke of oxen, and from twenty five to thirty carters. On the contrary, in coming down the river, the vessel requires only eight or ten men, and in going up, there must be but six or eight horses, or four yoke of oxen.

From the mouth of the Dniester, as far as Karakerman the shore is low, sandy, and very accessible. It is covered with trees and a few fishing huts.

The Dniester passes the city of Bender, one hundred miles from its mouth, remarkable for the resistance of Charles the twelfth of Sweden, who retired thither after his defeat by Peter the Great at Pultowa. With a force of only three hundred men he defended his camp against the Ottoman army of 26,000 Turks and Tartars, until it was carried by storm, when he took refuge in a house, with a few general officers and domestics. With these, he fired from the windows and bravely defended himself, till the edifice was in flames. In this extremity a sentinel observed, that the chancery house at the distance of fifty yards, had a stone roof and was proof against fire, in which they might defend themselves to the last. "*There's a true Swede,*" exclaimed the monarch and rushing out like a madman, sword in hand, at the head of a few desperadoes, he attempted to cut his way through the opposing Turks, when the "*Iron Head*"* was at last made a prisoner.

Akerman has at present some trade exporting corn, wool, hides, butter, furs, tallow, wax, honey, wine and timber of various kinds, to the different ports on the Black Sea, and to Constantinople.

As vessels cannot go up to the city, they anchor in seven or eight feet water, above the first passage, where they receive their cargoes, from boats, that descend the river.

* The Turks called Charles XII. "*Iron Head.*"

GOVERNMENT OF CHERSON.

This province stretches along the coast of the Black Sea, from the mouth of the Dniester, to that of the Nieper, and is bounded by the Government of Katerinoslow on the east, by those of Poltava and Kiow on the north, and Bessarabia on the west.

This district of country is a part of the ancient Sarmatia. The borders of the Euxine, from the mouths of the Ister, to the environs of the Borysthenes, and the shores of the Palus Mæotis, were given to the Scythians by Herodotus.

The *Jazyges Basili*, or royal, were people of Sarmatia, and joined by Strabo to the Jazyges, on the coast of the Euxine Sea; and the territory laying between the Dniester and Dnieper, in D'Anville's map of *Orbis Romani pars Orientalis*, is assigned to the *Jazyges et Basilii*. After Strabo, it constituted the south western portion of that territory, which received the name of Parva Scythia, in more modern times, called Little Tartary, after which the northern and western parts were called the Ukraine.

When the Turks were compelled to retire beyond the Dniester, this territory was formed into a province, under the title of the Government of Cherson.

From the invasion of Darius, until the conquests of Russia, the inhabitants were uncivilized and con-

tinually involved in wars. The tide of battle had so often rolled over these fertile regions, that agriculture was scarcely known, and the principal pursuits of the inhabitants were the chase, predatory excursions, and acts of barbarian warfare.

The improvements in agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, which have been rapidly introduced and zealously encouraged, by the Russian government, have rendered it one of the most populous, productive, and important territories of that empire.

The principal sea ports are Ovidiopol, Odessa, Otchakov, Nikolajev and Cherson.

OVIDIOPOL, stands on the northern side of lake Ovidora, opposite Akerman, and has considerable trade with Odessa, whither are sent the principal part of the products, which descend the Dniester. This town received its name from being situated near the place where it was supposed Ovid, the celebrated Roman poet, resided during his long and cruel banishment. He incurred the sentence of banishment, at the age of fifty, which was never revoked, and which made him an exile for the remainder of his life. The true cause of this circumstance has never been known.

Few instances in classical biography have more excited the discussion of the curious than this; still a mystery envelopes it, which no elucidation can thoroughly clear. He has himself assigned two reasons for the anger of Augustus; one, and that the ostensible cause, though certainly not the

true reason, the licentiousness of his juvenile poems; the other, he says was an error, not a crime, something of which his eyes had been guilty, not his intentions.

"Inscia quod crimen viderunt lumina plector,
"Peccatumque oculos est habuisse meum."

And in another place he writes,

"Perdiderunt cum me duo crimina, carmen et error,
"Alterius facti, culpa silenda mihi est."

It was something, in which the Emperor's feelings were particularly concerned; some attribute it to an amour of Ovid, with Livia, the wife of Augustus, while others suppose it arose from the knowledge which the poet, involuntarily, had of the shocking incest of the emperor with his daughter Julia.

The place of Ovid's exile was Tomi, a town in Scythia, near the Euxine Sea, according to D'Anville, who says that Tomi assumed the rank of metropolis, in the province named Scythia, which Constantine formed out of the Mœsian country, nearest to the mouths of the Ister; and is still known in the name of Tomeswan, Temisvan, or Tomisvan, now called Baba, a town situated at the head of the bay of Baba, which lies south of the Danube.

In the *Histoire de la Moldavie, et Valachie,* the circumstances are mentioned concerning the celebrity of Akerman as the place of Ovid's exile.

The author observes, "There is now a lake called by the peasants *Lacul Ovidului*, Ovid's Lake. Ovid left Ezetate Alba, and retired to a village three miles distant, of which the ruins are still visible. Near the cottage in which he lived, is a small spring, which bears his name, as well as the lake, on the banks of which he used to walk. The peasants have still various traditions concerning him."

It is the opinion of Doct. Clark, that Tonis, which was near the situation of Kilia, was the place of his residence, and he remarks: it seems those who would remove him from the marshes of the Ister, to the Tyros, have never read these lines of the poet:

> "Quam legis, ex illa venit epistola terra,
> "Latus ubi æquoreis additur Ister aquis."

Nor can they, surely, have considered the force of these words:

> —— "Medio defendimur Istro."

Gibbon fixes the place of his hopeless exile, on the frozen banks of the Danube. How long he lived in this condition is not certainly known; he was alive in the eighth year of his exile, which was two years after the death of Augustus. That event had no effect in producing his recal, for Tiberius was either hostile, or indifferent to him. Some of his biographers place his death in the fourth

year of the reign of Tiberius, and state that the people of Tomi mourned publicly for him, and erected a stately monument to his memory, without the walls of their city.

ODESSA. By the treaty of peace which Catharine II. concluded with the Ottoman Porte, in the year 1792, the frontiers of Russia, on the Black Sea were extended from the river Bog to the Dniester.

The village of Kadjobey, or Gadschibeg, immediately attracted the attention of the empress, as a most eligible situation for a maritime city. It was in the former Turkish territory of Bessarabia, between the Bog and Dniester, on the southern side of the bay of Kadjobey, thirty six miles west of Otchakov.

At that time it consisted of a small Tartar fort and a few miserable huts; but the harbour had long been resorted to, by the vessels which navigated the Black Sea, as a shelter in winter, and during storms and adverse winds. This new commercial establishment became a favourite object with Catharine II., and, as she studiously revived the classical names of the towns within her dominions on the Euxine, in the year 1796, Kadjobey was changed for that of Odessa; but D'Anville fixes the site of the ancient Odessus where the Turkish sea-port of Varna now stands.

The building of the city of Odessa, the construction of the pier for its port, and the other public works, were carried on under the direction of Admi-

ral Ribas, who captured the place from the Turks. The empress entrusted every thing concerning it into his hands, as a mark of her approbation of his gallant and meritorious conduct.

The city was extended on the side of the hill which rises with a gradual acclivity, to a considerable height, a short distance from the harbour. It commands a most extensive view, over the main sea, from almost every part of it. Many privileges were conferred upon it, the population rapidly increased, and a spirit of commercial enterprise was soon evinced, commensurate with the liberal views of its imperial founder; but the sudden death of Catharine II. at the close of the year 1796, had a most disastrous effect upon this flourishing emporium.

The emperor Paul, unfortunately, did not emulate his illustrious mother, in all her plans of national aggrandizement. For some cause the venerable Admiral was dismissed from his service, the construction of the pier was abandoned, the buildings were not carried on, commerce languished, the merchants began to leave the place, and the rising prosperity of the city was checked, until Alexander I. ascended the throne of Russia. Soon after this event, the pacification of the continent, the commercial treaties between the European powers generally, and those of Austria, France, England, Prussia, Holland, Naples, the Ragusians and the Republic of the Ionian islands, with the Ottoman Porte, which secured to those nations the right of passing the Dardanelles and the Bosporus of Thrace, and in fact enfranchised the Black Sea

from the dominion of the Turks, was most propitious for the accomplishment of those grand and extensive schemes, which had been projected by the greatest princess, that ever graced a throne.

Alexander I. beheld with peculiar solicitude, and justly appreciated the important consequences, which his territories on the borders of the Euxine would derive from this general commercial movement. Odessa appearing to be the point where the trade would principally concentrate, he encouraged it by a deduction of twenty five per cent. from the duties of import and export, which had been extended to all the other ports, by an ukase of the empress; and offered great advantages to foreigners and his own subjects, as an inducement for them to establish themselves in this new city.

In the year 1803, the Emperor appointed the Duke de Richelieu, the present premier of France, Governor General of the Province of Odessa, where he resided until the restoration of Louis XVIII. in the year 1814. To his zeal, activity and wise policy, is this flourishing city indebted for its present commercial importance. Being an exile from his native country, the growth of Odessa became a favourite object, on which he bestowed his undivided attention. He personally superintended the erection of all public buildings. Hospitable, benevolent and attentive to strangers; possessing superiour talents and a highly cultivated mind, the Duke was looked upon by all classes of society as the patron, father and protector of this Tyre of the Euxine.

In 1803, Odessa contained only eight thousand souls, and the surrounding country, for many leagues, was an uncultivated desert. No sound of rural labour broke upon the ear; not a house or tree; not a spot of artificial verdure; no trace of agriculture, arrested the eye, in wandering over these extensive wastes, which for centuries had not been furrowed by the plough. To render this melancholy prospect more striking, dreary and fearful, an ancient tumulus, piled for ages over the sepulchre of some distinguished Scythian chieftain, or the ascending smoke from the carbine of a wandering Tartar, occasionally appeared in the barren distance.

On the arrival of the Duke de Richelieu, an unprecedented activity was displayed, in the construction of piers, fortifications, magazines, lazarettoes and buildings of all kinds.

Emigrants were invited from Bulgaria, Poland, Hungary, Sclavonia, Germany and other neighbouring countries. Houses were built for the accommodation of the mechanics within the city; cattle and agricultural implements furnished to such adventurers as came to establish themselves in the environs, who were divided into villages, and every facility afforded, which might tend to stimulate them to exertion.

The wheat of Poland being an important article of export, the Duke, by his address, interested the nobility of that country, in the prosperity of Odessa: by wakening them to their interest, he turned their exertions to the advantage of his city, and

they soon commenced the erection of a number of houses and granaries.

There being no convenient wharves, or docks where the vessels could lie secure and lade or unlade with facility, two moles were commenced; one twelve hundred and ninety feet, and the other one thousand eight hundred and ninety long. They are constructed after the manner of the piers of Bayonne, from ten to twelve feet wide, exclusive of a parapet, which has embrasures for thirty pieces of heavy cannon. This artificial port comprises an area of 120,000 square yards. The entrance is nine hundred feet wide, so that the ships may get in with the wind at northeast, which before was adverse. The anchorage is good, the bottom being of fine sand and gravel. The depth of water within the port is sufficient to admit the largest ships of war, and, being never frozen over, it has a great advantage over all the other Russian harbours, in the Black and Azof Seas, which are generally obstructed by ice, for several months, while vessels can arrive and depart from Odessa, through the whole winter. Besides this grand mole, several smaller ones have been built and others projected. The roads without the port are safe in summer and the anchorage good.

Such were the liberal encouragements of the Emperor, and the zealous efforts of the governor, that the population of the city in 1811, amounted to 25,000 souls, and the environs, within a radius of eighty miles, was covered with thirty thousand inhabitants, and contained forty flourishing villages.

Numerous highly cultivated gardens and plantations, well stocked with herds of cattle and flocks of sheep, not only supplied the market with provisions, fruits and vegetables, but furnished large quantities of wheat, merino wool, butter, tallow, honey, wax, potatoes, beans, peas, and other legumes for exportation. Plantations of mulberry trees have been commenced for rearing silk-worms, and thus lands, which before had no value, have not only become a source of individual wealth, but interested the proprietors in the fortunes and prosperity of the city and whole territory.

The air is perfectly pure and the temperature mild; the streets are wide and regular, with spacious side walks, and the city remarkably healthy. The houses are generally built of stone, in the Turkish style, and most of them two stories high. The sea and large neighbouring ponds abound with wild fowl, and a surprising variety of excellent fish. Living is as cheap as in any city of Europe. Every inducement is offered for the advancement of agriculture, and the introduction and culture of all species of plants congenial to the soil and climate. There is a splendid cathedral, many churches, a jewish synagogue, a large college, with professors of the ancient and modern languages, natural philosophy, belles-lettres, history and the fine arts; two very good theatres where German, Polish and Russian plays are represented; a well regulated hospital, and a quarantine-lazaretto, which is placed in an airy situation, adjoining the largest mole on the declivity of a hill, and for size, proper distribution

and neatness of apartments, is not surpassed by any other building of the kind in Europe. Beside it are placed large imperial warehouses, for the purification of goods, coming from the east, and for those destined to lie by way of deposit. Many of the private buildings are magnificent, and some of the ware houses, magazines, and stores are very capacious edifices. The public square and the sides of most of the streets are ornamented with trees. A large and beautiful public garden has been laid out, near the city, for the use and recreation of the inhabitants.

Education has not been neglected at Odessa. The Richelieu Lycæum has a large square for the buildings, walks and gardens. The ages of the students for the several establishments, are, for the preparatory schools from eight to ten years, for the literary from ten to sixteen, for the scientific exercises from sixteen to eighteen. United in the general system, are two institutions, one for jurisprudence and political economy, and another for commerce. In the arrangements, besides those for religion, are first, that for languages including the Russian, Latin, Greek, French, Italian and German; the second for Belles Lettres, the third for Rhetoric, the fourth for Geography and for history, the fifth for Philosophy, the sixth for the Sciences, Mathematics and Physics, the seventh for the Art Military, and the eighth for the Fine Arts. With these are to be united interiour departments, by which schools will be maintained in different parts of the province.

As late as the year 1795, only a few houses were built and but little commercial business was transacted; in that year, the first of its trade, thirty five small vessels arrived and thirty sailed, which produced a revenue of only 4,360 rubles. But such was the rapid increase of the commerce of Odessa, that in 1805, six hundred and forty five sail of vessels arrived, which exported wheat alone to the amount of 5,772,000 rubles, and in 1815, one thousand five hundred vessels arrived and were laden with six millions of bushels of wheat and the various products of Russia. The exports for 1816 amounted to upwards of 60,000,000 of rubles. During the year 1817, three millions of bushels of wheat were shipped to the single port of Leghorn; the freight of which amounted to 1,350,000 dollars. Three hundred sail of vessels, averaging ten thousand bushels each were employed in this trade, and a third of that number transported one million of bushels to Naples, Genoa and Marseilles. The present population of the city exceeds forty thousand, while that of the surrounding country has increased in an equal ratio. There are various manufacturing establishments, a number of corn mills, distilleries and breweries.

The society is refined and the houses of the wealthy exhibit the splendour, taste and luxury of the most polished cities of Europe. The inhabitants are liberal, and strangers receive the most hospitable and courteous attention. This city has become the summer residence of the Polish nobility, who repair thither in crowds, to enjoy sea-bath-

ing. They are very gay, and the ladies in general lively and beautiful. Besides the amusements of the theatre, there are balls, twice or three times a week.

Between Odessa and the Dniester there are the two very extensive lakes of Dalonick, which formerly did, and now nearly do, communicate with the sea. One of these in particular is very deep and would contain all the navies of the world. With a trifling expense compared with the object, the communication might be opened. A canal of no great length, as the kind of river, the lake terminates in, goes near to the Dniester, might be cut to that river, and all its waters turned into the lake. It is said that the late Prince Potemkin, who delighted in things extraordinary, had formed the project of executing this work. Another canal of about fifteen miles, would unite the lake with the harbour of Odessa, which would in fact be placing that city at the mouth of the Dniester.

The imports from different countries, into Odessa, comprehend almost every article of commerce. Consuls and houses of correspondence are established in the city by the governments and subjects of such nations, as have secured by treaties with the Ottoman Porte, the right for their vessels freely to pass the Dardanelles and Bosporus of Thrace. The products of manufactures and the soil, which generally find a ready sale in that market, may be arranged under the names of the countries from whence they are usually derived.

Spain. The best kind of Malaga, Alicant and Xeres wines, in bottles and casks, and some hundred pipes of ordinary red wine.

The wines of Oporto and particularly dry Madeira, are imported in considerable quantities, and find a ready sale.

France furnishes from Marseilles, all its first kinds of wine in bottles and casks, and much common wine, such as Bourdeaux, red and white, in vessels containing two hundred and forty bottles, and those of Lunel and Frontignan. The other kinds are not in great demand. The French wines maintain at Odessa, as elsewhere on the continent, a pre-eminence over all others, and the demand for it, is very great. It is sent into Poland, all the southern parts of Russia, and even to Moscow, where it meets with that which came by the way of Riga and St. Petersburgh. It is easy to perceive that the Black Sea will soon withdraw this branch of trade from the Baltic.

The salted provisions of France, liqueurs, sweet oil, vinegars *prepares*, mustard called de maille, chocolate, porcelain, scented waters, jewelry composed of articles which are not prohibited, fine linens, arms, tobacco, various articles of furniture, namely, tea-boards or trays, vases, printed calico, and glass ware; dresses, manufactures of silk and other fabrics for ladies apparel, and in general all the articles of taste and fashion that are purchased in France, find a good market. Although brandy is permitted in the Russian ports on the Baltic,

it is prohibited in those of the Black Sea, unless some new regulation has been adopted since 1817.

Italy sends large quantities of common Sicily wine, liqueurs, syrups, Lucca oil, preserved citron, oranges, lemons, citrons, shelled almonds, comfits, different kinds of cheese, particularly parmasan, choice wines, such as Lacryma-Christi and others in bottles; quantities of refined sulphur, brimstone in mass and in rolls, the silks and other manufactures of Florence and Genoa, biscuit, pictures, marble ornaments, statuary, and jewelry. All these articles succeed well, but the last are in the greatest demand.

Levant. The importations from the Levant are extensive and valuable. Large quantities of red and white wine, of the first and ordinary kinds, in pipes and quarter casks, are received annually. The demand and consumption of those from Alonski and Rodosto, in the sea of Marmora is the greatest, as they are much esteemed. Those of Tenedos, Santorin, Syra, Samos, Smyrna, Cyprus, Tino and other islands in the Archipelago, do not meet with so ready a sale.

The imports of the following articles are immense. Sweet and lamp oil, preserved citron, *Bekmis*, a kind of new wine for distilling into vinegar, raisins, figs, currants, almonds, dates, olives, oranges, citrons, Smyrna cotton, coloured and white cotton yarn, raw and spun silk of all qualities, sponges, Mocha coffee, cut and leaf smoking tobac-

co, myrrh, aloes, all kinds of gums, nutgalls, drugs and medicines, saffron, safflower, Cashmere shawls, and other Asiatic and Turkish fabrics of every kind; pearls, pipes tipped with amber, and an infinite variety of other articles.

Anatolia. The northern coast of Anatolia has considerable trade with Odessa, by the ports of Sinope, Kerasount and Trebisond, from which are received copper, hazel nuts, walnuts, figs, raisins, nardek or juice of pomegranates, from which brandy is distilled; ebony, red wood resembling mahogany and very suitable for furniture, boxwood, cotton, India goods, Persian silks and carpets.

This trade was but inconsiderable as early as 1808, but has increased with that of the other ports in the Black Sea. In reflecting upon the geographical situation of this part of the delightful country of Anatolia, and the productions of the interiour provinces, it is evident if a different form of government existed, that it would soon become of great commercial consequence.

Moldavia, Valachia and Rumelia. A large quantity of red and white wine is sent from Moldavia and Valachia to Odessa by land. Some small vessels belonging to Zoopoli in the gulf of Pharos and other ports in Rumelia annually arrive.

Goods are sent from the ports in the Levant to Enos in the gulf of Saras, ascend the river

Mariss in boats to Adrianople, and from thence are transported by land through Rumelia, Valachia, Bulgaria, and Bessarabia to Odessa. Cotton is also sent across the country from Salonichi, situated at the north eastern extremity of the gulf of that name.

Hungary. Small quantities of Tokay and other superiour and common wines arrive from Hungary, either by land, or down the Danube, as far as Galatz at the conflux of the Pruth and Danube. When the obstructions of the Danube and its numerous branches shall be removed, the productions of Germany, Italy, Switzerland and France can be sent by inland navigation directly to Ismail, and from thence by sea, to Odessa and all the other ports of the Black Sea.

Germany furnishes woollen cloths and other fashionable stuffs, plated ware, jewelry, copper, brass, iron and other manufactures, purchased at the fairs of Leipsic. They are transported by land by the way of Brodi or Jassy.

Poland. Immense quantities of wheat arrive from the provinces of Poland, the greater part of which is brought in waggons, and the remainder descends the Dnieper in boats, and is transported from Cherson in lighters to Odessa.

England. Broadcloths, cotton fabrics, glass and earthern ware, manufactures of iron, brass, sil-

ver and gold, particularly those of Birmingham and Sheffield.

The goods, wares, and merchandise imported, are generally deposited in the magazines and ware houses of the several established merchants; who supply the city and its environs, the merchants of the ports in the Crimea, on the Sea of Azof and the interiour. Large quantities are sent by land to Moscow, the centre of the commerce of the Russian empire, and to many cities of Germany, Prussia, Poland, and Russia, where large fairs are held, particularly at Makariew, or Makarev, on the Volga in the government of Niznei-Novogorod, where various kinds of goods are annually sold to the amount of from fifteen to twenty millions of rubles.

The exports from Odessa consist of all the articles usually obtained in the Baltic, but wheat may be considered the grand staple commodity at present.

There are several species of wheat cultivated in the south of Russia. The first sort is called *Arnaut* or hard wheat, a considerable portion of which is many eared and very productive. It is bearded, and sown in the spring. It is exceeding hard and heavy, and keeps better than any other grain; but the flour is not quite so white, for which reason the Spaniards will not buy it; mixed with soft wheat, it makes excellent bread; biscuit made of arnaut wheat flour keeps very long. The Neapolitan macaroni is much superiour to all other, by being made of the flour of this wheat, or of a

similar kind. It is worth twenty five per cent. more than other kinds of wheat. As it is very slow in attracting moisture, it is the best for transportation by sea, and for keeping under ground, for a great length of time; and most of the granaries are thus constructed. The greatest quantity of wheat is brought into the city, between the months of May and August; from five hundred to a thousand waggon loads, at times, arrive in the course of a day.

The next kind in goodness is the *Red winter wheat.* Most of the Polish wheat is what is called *tender*, or *soft* grain, which is very subject to heat in ships, and to spoil in magazines, if long kept.

Arnaut and winter red wheats grow in the neighbourhood of Cherson, Elizavetgrad on the borders of the Ingul, or Ingulez, and Krementchuk, a district of the government of Catharinonslav, on the river Dnieper, and some in the Crimea; but the greatest quantity, and of a quality very superiour to that of Barbary or Sicily, is cultivated in the vicinity of Taganrock, Bachmut and along the western coast of the Azof Sea, particularly at Maloshna-Woditsa, whence the conveyance is easy to Kaffa. It is esteemed the best wheat in the world, being very large, heavy and clean. Millions of acres in the steppes or plains, where the Nogaie Tartars inhabit, might be cultivated with it as the soil requires no manure, being remarkably rich. The production is forty times the seed. The price of arnaut wheat at Taganrock has been, some

years, less than half the price of soft wheat at Odessa. Considerable wheat is brought from places, situated from fifteen to eighteen hundred versts up the Dnieper.

There is a kind of rye, near Elizavetgrad, that measures full half an inch in length, and is of an excellent quality.

The other articles of export are wheat and rye flour; barley, oats, salt beef and pork, fish, caveare, bar iron, the lump butter of Siberia and other kinds, common and merino wool, pot ashes, shamois, tar, wax, yellow and white tallow, peltries, furs, sailcloth, duck, coarse and fine linens, such as sheetings, crash, table cloths and napkins, different kinds of leather, mats, wax and tallow candles, Cosack wine, gold thread and other gold fabrics of Moscow, spikes, bolt iron, ironmongery, glass ware, window glass, starch, feathers, flax, hemp, horse hair and hides, ox hides, isinglass, China and Siberian rhubarb, soap, bristles, bacon, tobacco of the Ukraine, flax seed, crude nitre, timber, masts, boards, and many other articles of less importance.

The greatest part of the merchandise is brought to Odessa in waggons, from the interiour; the remainder coastwise, from the ports in the sea of Azof, the Crimea and other parts of the coast.

The articles brought from Moscow are from thirty to forty five days on the road, and the expense is from one and a half to three rubles per pood, of thirty six pounds.

The imports from Taganrock in 1808, amounted to 1,287,891 poods, and since that period they have more than quadrupled.

To execute his favourite plan, of raising this new city, and promoting this new channel of commerce, Alexander I. issued an Ukase, dated March 5, 1804, to make Odessa an entrepot, which was of great advantage to the city. By this regulation, which is nearly equivalent to a *porto franco*, all unprohibited articles of importation may remain in the public magazines, without paying the duties of entrance, till the time of sale, or they may be reshipped, without the payment of any duties. But to give it every possible privilege, besides that of an entrepot, it derives particular advantages from a transito trade, which was established by an ukase, addressed to the directing senate, dated St. Petersburg, March 5, 1804.

"As the transito trade is beneficial in all its parts to the empire, it has long had the attention of government. With the general tariff of the year 1782, was published, at the same time, a transito regulation, for such goods as passed through Riga to Poland, Lithuania and Courland, and with the tariff now in force, even the rules and regulations are mentioned, for the guidance of the Russian merchants, who carry foreign goods through Russia; but as neither the place, nor the roads have been named, through which the transito trade was permitted to be carried on, this regulation had not the desired effect. As experience now shews, how the trade of Odessa is increasing from the privileges granted to the place, *We* think proper, for the still further encouragement of its commerce, to

establish the transito trade on the following principles, and command."

"Sec. I. All Russian and foreign merchants, who have the knowledge of carrying on trade en gross, or wholesale, to foreign countries, shall have liberty to carry all goods, those excepted which are prohibited by the tariff, that shall arrive by sea, or other Russian towns, at Odessa, as transito goods, to Moldavia, Walachia, the states of the emperor of Germany and king of Prussia. It shall likewise be permitted, to import goods into Odessa, from the above mentioned countries for re-exportation.

"Sec. II. In those places, where, according to the tenure of the present regulation, the transito trade is permitted, the commanders of the provinces are to inspect the roads, and make the report of the same, to the minister of commerce.

"Sec. III. Those goods that are carried as transito from Odessa to Moldavia and Walachia, are only to pass through the customhouse of Dubossar and Mohileff; those that go to the states of the emperor of Germany, must pass through the customhouse of Radzivill, and those that are destined for Prussia, must pass through the customhouse at Krinky."

The increase of the trade, in consequence of the politic and liberal regulations of the emperor, induced him to modify them at various times, that every possible facility might be given, to those merchants, who were interested in a branch of commerce, that was deemed of so much consequence to the nation. An additional ukase of the 26th of

October 1808, removed such remaining difficulties, as experience had suggested, and permitted free of duty, the importation of all foreign merchandise, that was allowed transito.

The following imported goods are allowed transito, and the whole drawback when the duty has been paid in any Russian ports. Burmetten, Indian basma, bisti, kadifi, or table cloths, Bucharian cottons, window and bed curtains, Asiatic kumatschi, sashes or girdles, Gumay or Persian muslins, kitiaka, or all sorts of nankins, unwrought cotton, white and coloured cotton yarn, Turkish, Chinese, and Persian raw silk, white and coloured spun silk, Muchojar, Daray, Turkish, and Persian silk stuffs, manufactures of silk and cotton as aladschy, schemandrufy and kjutny, Uralian and all kinds of Asiatic coats and dresses, camels hair and all hair of foreign animals, Asiatic horse covers, goats' wool, shawls, carpets, korallen, or Chinese beads, tea, sweet oil, all sorts of wine, cloves, nutmegs, allspice, cinnamon, cassia, pepper, ginger and all articles of spices in the tariff, indigo, cochineal, madder, morena, bruskawaja, or red colours, rasped and unrasped sandal wood, all kinds of dye wood, Arabian and Persian gums, drugs, medicines, perfumes, and generally all articles sufficiently rich, to defray the expense of transportation, from Odessa, into the countries of the west.

Formerly most of these articles were either sent from Smyrna by land to Antoki, a port on the Sea of Marmora, seventy six miles south west from Constantinople, and then shipped to Rodosto on the

opposite coast; or they were sent by water direct to Rodosto, from Smyrna, and then transported in waggons through Rumelia, Bulgaria and Hungary, to Vienna and the other cities of Germany, Prussia, Poland and Russia. This route was tedious and expensive. The goods were much injured, and frequently spoiled, in passing over this long and extremely bad road.

The merchandise imported for the benefit of the transito regulations, is subject to quarantine, after which, it is received by the consignees into their ware houses, and then laden in waggons, under the seal of the customhouse, to be conveyed to Vienna, by the way of Brodi, or some other road, according to its place of destination.

If any of the goods, the consumption of which is not prohibited, are entered to be sold in the provinces of Russia, it is only necessary to make a declaration before the collector, and pay the duties on such, according to the tariff.

The fabrics and other articles of commerce, of Austria, Saxony, Prussia, France, and Italy, which are destined for Constantinople and the ports in the Levant, are brought by the way of Brodi or Moldavia, and shipped from Odessa. Many of the products of Moldavia and Valachia take the same route. These goods pay at the customhouse in Brodi, one ruble per pood, without reference to the nature of the merchandise.

List of exported goods, which are allowed transito. Woollen cloths, silk stuffs, gold and silver

manufactures, ribbands, lace, muslins, jewelry, hardware and all valuable articles, that are in demand in the Levant.

The commerce of transito is very advantageous to the country, through which the goods pass, as it employs a very small capital, without the risk of loss, a large number of people, and increases the consumption of the local productions, which find an extra and profitable market, at every stage of the great roads, leading from the sea port, through the various provinces, made use of for this purpose.

The following statement made by a French merchant who has resided for many years in Odessa, will give an approximate idea of the importance of this commerce to Russia.

In the year 1808, there were imported 33,131 bales of cotton, that weighed 265,048 poods, the value of which at the average of 40 rubles per pood amounts to

	Rubles Co.
	10,601,920:
1791 Bales of red and white Cotton yarn weighing 8,754 poods at 100 Rubles the pood - - - - - - - -	875,400:
Medicines - - - - - - - -	400,000:
Other merchandise - - - - - -	950,000:
Total value - - - - - -	12,827,320:

The expense of transporting the goods to the ware houses, cost of cloth, cords and other materials for new bales, labour of embaling, storage and

commissions may be calculated at four per cent. on the above sum, which gives

	Rubles	Co.
	513,092	80
All these articles weighed 302,792 poods, which at the mean rate of two rubles per pood for land transportation, amounts to - - - - - - - - -	605,584	
At least one third of the value of the goods was insured at a premium of four per cent., which gave a profit of - -	171,030	
Total expense for the transit - -	1,289,706	80
Deducting one quarter of this sum for real expenses, to wit - - - -	322,426	70
Leaves a net profit to Russia of - -	967,280	10
The number of vessels which brought these transito goods to Odessa amounted to 399, and each vessel being navigated by twelve men on an average, gives for the whole 4788 men who remained at least forty days in port, at an expense of at least 50 copecks per day, making the sum of 191,520 rubles, half of which may be taken as net profit - - -	95,760	
Total product of the transit of importation	1,063,040	10
The transit of exportation is not so large amounting to about - - - -	265,760	2 1-2
Total profit of the commerce of transito	1,328,800	12 1-2

Two thirds of this sum amounting to 885,866 rubles and 74 copecks remains in Odessa; the other third 442,933 rubles and 37 copecks is expended in the environs and upon the route to Brodi, Moldavia and elsewhere.

As it is a political axiom, that wherever there is an income, a capital is always supposed to exist, with a proportionate industry to render it productive, and this immense profit from the transito trade of Odessa, being equal to the interest on 26,576,000 rubles at only five per cent. per annum, it may with propriety be said to represent a capital of that amount, for the general benefit of the country.

The commerce of transito thus established at Odessa, has recalled the trade of the primitive and middle ages, when the merchandise of China, India and Persia, arrived by the way of the Oxus and the Caspian Sea, from the shores of which it was scattered through the north of Europe by the Wolga; or by the routes of the rivers Cyrus and Phasis, or the Euphrates and Tygris, they were deposited on the eastern and southern coast of the Black Sea, and then transported to Constantinople, which for many centuries was the great emporium for the commodities of the east.

If the genius and enterprise of European navigators enabled them to traverse the ocean, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and thus diverted this commerce from its ancient channel, the advancement of civilization in the Russian empire, the rapid extension of its frontier, and the encouragement and protection, which the government offers, will again restore it, in conformity to those laws of the moral and physical world, which after the lapse of ages bring us to the point, from whence we departed. The astonishing increase within a few years of the trade of Asia, by the way of Bukhara and Oren-

burg; the friendly disposition of the Persian court towards that of Russia; and the extensive plans which Alexander appears determined to carry into effect, the more perfectly to secure the immense advantages, which will derive to his empire from this inland commerce, leaves scarcely a doubt, that after no very distant period, the south and west of Europe, will no longer receive the products of Asia, by the long and dangerous navigation of the Pacific and Atlantic oceans.

When Odessa was founded, two fairs in each year were directed to be held by the government, which the increasing activity of commerce soon rendered useless; but the transferring of the contracts of Kiow thither, has been very beneficial to the merchants and all new Russia. This is a kind of annual fair, from the tenth to the twenty fifth of January, during which period bargains for wheat, and the other productions of Poland are made, and much other business transacted.

There are two market days in each week, for the productions of the surrounding countries, consumed in the city, and when large quantities of wheat are also purchased for exportation.

The business of the city is principally transacted by twelve brokers or factors, who are recommended by the merchants and patented by the tribunal of commerce. Each factor has one or more substitutes of his own choice. They receive half of one per cent. brokerage, on the amount of all purchases and sales. All agreements are made on stamped paper, which besides the stamp duty of one tenth of one

per cent., pay one per cent. *ad valorem* to the government.

The tribunal of commerce is composed of a president, two members, an imperial proctor and a secretary, nominated by the governor, and two merchants chosen by the people. This tribunal has cognisance of all cases arising out of any commercial transaction, and there is no appeal from its decisions, except directly to the Senate. The manner of conducting suits before it is simple and not expensive. A sworn translator is attached to this maritime court, who translates into the Russian language all papers that are presented for its inspection.

There is a bank of discount and deposit similar to those in the other cities in the empire, with a capital of 750,000 rubles. Bills of exchange endorsed by two respectable merchants established in the city, are discounted for not less than nine months, at the rate of six per cent. per annum. A merchant, who has a large amount of goods on hand, of the growth, produce or manufacture of the country, and is in want of funds, can obtain from a third to three quarters of their estimated value, by pledging them as collateral security to the bank.

The bank of exchange receives bank-paper for copper copecks, to a certain amount, according to the rate of exchange at the time. It is not particularly beneficial to commerce, but is principally intended to regulate the value of the bank notes, circulating in the city.

The chamber of commerce consists of five members and a secretary, chosen by the merchants, and represents them in all transactions with the governor in relation to commerce. It is the duty of this body to petition the governor for the redress of grievances, and solicit such indulgences or alterations in the maritime regulations, as the interests of the merchants may occasionally require.

An imperial Chamber of Insurance was established in the year 1806, with a capital of 500,000 rubles. The business of the office is transacted by three directors and a recorder, chosen by the stockholders.

As the ordinance of France of 1681, with the expositions of Emerigon and Valin, forms the basis of the insurance jurisprudence of Europe, it is adopted by the Imperial Chamber at Odessa, in conformity to an order of the Russian government.

The rate of insurance varies from three to thirteen per cent., according to the season of the year, for a voyage from Odessa to Constantinople.

Soon after this establishment went into operation, another was formed called the Græco-Russian Chamber of Insurance, with the same capital, and under a similar direction.

Many of the merchants are also underwriters. The merchants who reside in Odessa are very respectable. They are formed of people from every country. There are a few English houses, but the principal part are Russians, Germans,

French and Italians, whose establishments are in good credit. Besides the Christians, the Jews form a large part of the population. They are from Polonia, and the jewesses are generally fair complexioned and very handsome.

The merchants are divided into four classes, as is the case all over Russia. Strangers who are not naturalized constitute the fourth class, and are not allowed to carry on any internal commerce.

The attributes and prerogatives of each class are determined by an ukase of the first of January 1807, by which those of Odessa are exempted for twenty five years from 1796, from the crown tax on the amount of their declared capitals, which is a saving of at least five hundred rubles per annum, to the merchants of the first grade. Besides this privilege the merchants of Odessa are not obliged to have troops quartered upon them, even in time of war.

The revenue of the city, and which is appropriated exclusively to its use, arises from a small tax on the inhabitants, called Gorodskoi, licenses for selling brandy, a tenth of the customs, and other inconsiderable duties, which for the years 1808, 1809, and 1810, amounted to 689,201 rubles. The imperial revenue for the same period was 1,286,449 rubles.

The post establishment has been much improved. Letters from Brodi are only three days on the road; those from the centre of the German empire from fourteen to fifteen, and those from

France and Italy seldom above thirty days. A courier goes to St. Petersburgh in nine days, and returns in as short a period. The inconvenience attendant on the procuring passports for the interiour of the Russian dominions has totally disappeared, and the moment they have been scrutinized on the frontiers, the traveller may go all over the empire, without suffering the slightest interruption.

The Emperor Alexander visited his southern provinces during the spring of 1818. After a residence of four days in Odessa, he set out on the sixteenth of May for the Crimea. He reviewed the troops assembled in the camp of Terspol, near Bender, among whom were thirty regiments of infantry. His majesty was so satisfied with the flourishing condition of Odessa, that he dispatched a chasseur of his guard, as a courier to Paris, to convey to the Duke de Richelieu an autographic letter, in which he expressed, to this founder of Odessa, his lively gratitude. The Emperor assigned two millions of rubles for the construction of a lazaretto and an aqueduct at Odessa.

OTCHAKOV or Oczacow, is situated on the western bank of the estuary of the rivers Dnieper and Bog, called the Liman, opposite the fortress of Kinburn. This town was of considerable importance to the Turks as a harbour for their gallies, and being always fortified and garrisoned, it served them to act against the Russians on the event of war. Independent of the value it derived from

its strength and situation, it was of much more consideration as a commercial port.

The colony of Milesians by whom it was founded, called it Olbis. It became celebrated during the wars of Russia and the Ottoman Porte, having been twice taken by storm. It was formerly a place of considerable trade, and contained from thirty to forty thousand inhabitants. In the year 1794 the trade amounted to 546,452 rubles and employed one hundred and twenty two sail of vessels. Since the establishment of the city of Odessa, it has regularly declined, has been almost deserted, and is no longer a place of any commercial consequence.

The road is very insecure and the harbour will not do to venture in, as the ice, coming down the Bog and Dnieper, renders it very dangerous.

NICOLAJEV, Nicholaef or Nicolaeff, stands near the confluence of the Ingul and Bog, on the left bank of the latter, which at this place is about three miles wide. It is nearly ten leagues distant from the mouth of the Bog, thirty from Odessa and fifteen from Cherson. It contained fifteen thousand inhabitants in the year 1807. What renders the place of most importance, is the establishment of the principal arsenal of the imperial navy, besides being the seat of the civil and military government for the province.

The river Bog was called by the ancients the Hypanis. It rises in Podolia, and being joined by the Ingul, the Sinaucha and the Guiloi, besides

other streams, which it takes up in its course, falls into the Liman, a little above Otchakov.

The upper part of the Bog is only navigable in the spring, when the waters are high ; but, at its confluence with the Sinaucha, it is eight feet deep and considerably broad. Lower down it receives the Ingul and then spreads out into a large estuary, which unites with that of the Dnieper and may be navigated by men of war for 150 versts. For three or four hundred versts further up, it is full of dangerous rocks, which could not be cleared away without considerable expense.

The Ingul might be made navigable, from Jelisavetgrad to Nikolajev, by means of locks.

As these two rivers are not very advantageous for water carriage, the admiralty at Nicolajev receives the necessary stores and supplies, almost solely by the Dnieper ; yet this conveyance is subject to great difficulties. The barges must pass the Liman, and go up the Bog, which is very dangerous, as they are slightly built, and it is almost impossible for rafts to cross such a large sheet of water. The mouth of the Bog is upwards of 2400 yards wide. The right bank is much higher than the left.

Nicolajev was founded in the year 1791, in a desert. In 1792, Michiali Leontjenitsch Falajev, who was appointed surveyor by Prince Potemkin, built four hundred and fifty houses. In 1794, owing to the encouragement given by Admiral Mordvinov, the number had increased to seven hundred ; and since the admiralty has been removed thither

from Cherson, the city has been very much enlarged. From its advantageous situation, it will become one of the handsomest cities of the empire. The surrounding country is level, rich land, capable of the highest cultivation, and is already covered with numerous villages.

The market place, admiralty, and the finest buildings, stand on the banks of the Ingul. The streets are very wide and cross each other at right angles. The largest edifices are the market place and town house; one wing of the latter forms the exchange. The admiralty, or naval depot, forms a large quadrangle; and the dock yard lies in a bed of the river, so that vessels when launched, run directly down the Ingul into the Bog. As merchant ships are not allowed to come up to the city, there is no account of the import trade; for the goods sent to Nikolajev pay duty at other ports. The principal exports are wheat, meal, tallow and hides. The arsenal, store houses and other works are very extensive, and great efforts have been made to render this place an emporium of the highest importance to the Russian navy. The Admiral-in-chief of the Black Sea, as well as the vice admirals, reside here; their palaces are very stately buildings.

Considering the short time that has elapsed since Nicolajev was a miserable village, the progress made in the place is surprising. Its elevated situation, the magnificence of its rivers, the regularity that has been observed in laying out the streets; the number of the public works, with the flourish-

ing state of its population, place it very high in the catalogue of Russian cities, and it may be considered one of the finest in the southern provinces of the empire.

The civil, military and naval officers residing there, have introduced habits of urbanity and cleanliness; the society is polished, and as much splendour is exhibited in the higher circles, as is to be found among people of a similar grade at St. Petersburgh or Moscow.

Some interesting antiquities have been found in the neighbourhood of Nicolajev. To the south of the town near where the Bog falls into the Dnieper, there stood, not long ago, a fortress, which the traditions of the country ascribed to Alexander the great. It was destroyed during the reign of Paul, and no trace of its existence now remains.

Not far from the same place, exactly at the junction of the two rivers, about twelve miles from Nicolajev, are the remains of Olbiopolis, the only Greek city of European Sarmatia of which there is any ancient medal extant. The Russians have discovered there, not only medals, but also bas-reliefs, inscriptions, amphoræ, tombs, and many other valuable indications of the site of that city. In the church of Nicolajev is preserved a stone brought from thence, which has an inscription, recording the dedication of a golden image of Victory to Apollo, the Protector, offered up by the officers, whose names are mentioned, in behalf of the city and their own safety.

This city was founded, during the empire of the Medes, by a Milesian colony, to which they gave the name of Olbia, or the Happy. It was afterwards called Borysthenes by the Greeks. It at one time bore the name of Miletopolis, but that of Olbiopolis appears on the medals of the city. It was one of the great emporiums of Greece, in the Euxine, during many ages.

CHERSON, or Kherson, is seated on the right bank of the river Dnieper, near where it falls into the Liman, ten miles below the mouth of the Ingulitz, and the same distance above the embouchure of the Bog. Of the ancient and magnificent city of Cherson, only a few ruins now remain. It was situated some miles to the south west of the spot where the Russians have built Sevastopol. The present Cherson was founded by Catharine II. in 1778, and is chiefly built of hewn stone. Prince Potemkin was charged with the superintendence of its erection, who accelerated the work with incredible activity. He bestowed upon it many instances of patronage, and was partial to the place. The fortress and arsenal were built by him. He was frequently seen to set out from St. Petersburgh, fly as it were to the banks of the Dnieper and make his appearance again on those of the Neva, in less time than would be requisite for an ordinary man to perform the journey to Moscow. During a journey from Yassy to Nicolajev, in the year 1791, he was taken suddenly ill, and being removed from the carriage by his attendants, for

fresh air, he died on the road side. The corpse, was removed to Cherson and placed in a vault, under the dome of the church, belonging to the fortress.

Cherson was intended to be the principal mart for all the commodities of export and import. In 1783, the city contained 40,000 inhabitants within its walls, and from its dock were launched not only vessels for the purposes of commerce, but ships of war destined to strike terror into the Ottoman empire. The architecture of the buildings of the fortress is appropriate, and evincive of the good taste of the engineer. The stone used for their construction resembles that porous though durable lime-stone, which the first Grecian colonies in Italy employed in erecting the temples of Præstum. The arsenal is extensive and contains a monument to Potemkin, its founder. The dock-yard was found inconvenient on account of the bar, as the ships when built were obliged to be floated down to the Liman, on camels as at St. Petersburgh, which occasioned the removal of the grand naval establishment of the Black Sea to Nicolajev; but that at Cherson is still retained as a building yard.

Over each of the city gates appears the Russian eagle, with his wings extended, in sculpture, and underneath one of them is the following very significant inscription: "THIS IS THE ROAD THAT LEADS TO BYZANTIUM."

When those prophetic words were dictated, Catharine II. had designated Constantinople as the future metropolis of her empire; and conferred upon one of her grandsons, the name of the illustri-

ous founder of that city. The route to the throne of Constantine has been steadily pursued by her imperial successors, and the advance of the Russian legions has *only halted* on the banks of the Danube.

The river Dnieper, Dniepr, Dieper, Nieper, Danapris, the Borysthenes of ancient geography, is one of the largest rivers of Europe. It has its source in Russia, in the government of Smolensk, not far from the mountains, whence issue the Dwina, Dvina, Duna or Dougana and the Wolga, or Volga, and runs southwards through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Cossacks and that of the Nogai Tartars, into the Black Sea, between Kinburn and Otchakov. It pursues a course of about 1000 miles, through the fertile provinces of Smolensk, Mohileff, Tschernigof, Kief, and Catharinoslav. At Smolensk it generally freezes in November, at Krementchuk in December, and at Kief in January. Its bed is partly sandy and stony, and partly of marl. The water, though calcareous, is not unwholesome. The islands which the Dnieper forms in its windings are extremely numerous. In many places, it has commodious ferries. At Kief there is a bridge of boats 1638 feet in length. This bridge is opened at the breaking up of the ice. The Dnieper abounds in fish, particularly sturgeon, carp and pike.

Notwithstanding the course of this river is so extensive, its navigation from Smolensk is only once impeded. Thirteen cataracts caused by a multitude of blocks of granite, begin below the

mouth of the Siera, and extend to Alexandrowskaia, a distance of about forty miles.

These rapids could be passed in the spring freshes without much hazard, but in the summer the boats were unladen, and transported with their cargoes round them by land. To remove these obstructions, became an object of public consideration, after the establishment of Cherson. A merchant by the name Faleew first undertook the business, at his own expense, or, as others state, under the protection of Prince Potemkin, as the work ceased after his death. It has since been so assiduously promoted that barges can now descend the largest cataracts without danger. The rocks were blasted where they impeded the current, and the cataracts of Kaidatsk, Sounskoi, Khanskoi and Strelinskoi were cleared; in that of Nenasitenskoi, sluices were hollowed in the rock. As it was necessary to make some locks and canals, that boats might likewise ascend the river, the government gave orders to that effect, and it is understood they are now completed.

From the water-falls, to the mouth of the Dnieper, the distance of nearly two hundred versts, this river is navigable with perfect safety. At Cherson there are only six or seven feet of water in the deepest channel of the Dnieper, near where all its branches disgorge into the Liman, which is about forty miles in length and from five to seven in breadth. All vessels therefore of a larger draught are obliged to stop at Gloubok, the anchorage of which serves as a port to Cherson; Gloubok is

twenty one miles below the city, and stands on the northern bank of the Liman, which empties into the sea between Otchakov and the fortress of Kinburn. The Liman is frozen over two months in the year, and the Dnieper is generally covered with ice from the middle of December to the first of February; towards the source it continues frozen until the middle of April, so that large pieces of ice continue to float down it throughout May. Being prodigiously swollen at this period, by the thaw of snow and by rains, it overflows its banks, forming lakes in various places, which are not entirely dried up during the heats of summer.

The first commerce of Cherson came from Constantinople. The Turks and Greeks under the Ottoman flag brought oranges, lemons, dried fruits, olive oil, wines and other articles. During the year 1785, twenty vessels arrived at Cherson from Marseilles and departed laden, besides those of other nations. In 1787, the trade had considerably increased; more than two hundred vessels were employed in it, belonging to Russia or Austria. In the year 1804, upwards of a hundred Greek ships were laden at Gloubok, principally with iron.

Cherson is well calculated, from its position, for concentrating the Russian and Polish commerce, on the Black Sea, so as to draw thither much of the trade, which has hitherto been carried on between the Baltic and the ports of the Mediterranean. The same articles which are imported and exported through the Baltic, equally form the basis of the commerce of Cherson. Both are supplied from the

same markets. The importations consist of wines of every sort; brown and refined sugars; coffee, silks, velvets, cloths, spices, olive oil, almonds, figs, raisins and other dried fruits, sweetmeats, syrups, salt provisions, articles of fashion, cheese, household furniture, hats, pastes of every sort, jewelry, sulphur, rum, liqueurs, and generally all those kinds of merchandise which are enumerated among the imports of Odessa.

The exports are iron, hemp, tallow, wheat, rye, masts, oak, elm, and other timber, wax, bristles, wool, sailcloth, salted beef, horse hair, flax, flax-seed, tobacco, down, feathers, furs, hare-skins, mats, pot-ashes, raw skins of oxen, cows, calves, and horses, red and black leather, tar, pitch, fir, and pine plank.

Most of the above articles are collected in towns situated on the Dnieper, or at a small distance from that river on other navigable rivers, such as the Soz or Sosh, the Sem, the Soola, the Psiol, the Vorskla, Sammora, the Ingulitz, the Desna and many others. They are conveyed to Cherson in barges, or on rafts. This port is much nearer the fertile provinces of Russia than Petersburgh or Riga. By the navigation of the Dnieper, it approximates most of those towards the north, which trade with the maritime towns of the Baltic, and has many advantages over them in the facility of conveyance.

Articles intended for Cherson are not moved till the thaw of the Dnieper. The provinces which supply them lying near the rivers, it is easy to

convey them by land to the several depots on their banks, at a very moderate expense. On the contrary, it is necessary during the winter, to employ many days in drawing commodities destined for the Baltic, near the canals and rivers which lead to that sea; and considerable quantities of hemp and other merchandise are transported by land, to its ports, from a thousand to fifteen hundred miles. Great labour and expense are required for the transportation of the southern productions of Russia and Poland towards the north west; while nature has prepared the way for them to the Black Sea. By land the distance is short, and easy throughout the year. The improvements made in the cataracts of the Dnieper must facilitate it by water, during eight or nine months; whereas there is but one favourable season, for conveying such articles by water to the Baltic, and as most of them lie at a much greater distance from the shores of that sea, than from Cherson, the conveyance by land is infinitely more expensive. The interiour commercial relations of Cherson have been rapidly extended since 1808.

Krementschuk, the capital of the Province of Catharinoslav, supplies oxen for salting and hides. A sugar refinery is established there.

Pultowa, besides beef and hides, affords wheat, rye, mats and wax. Pultowa is rendered famous by the siege of the Swedes and the defeat of Charles XII. by Peter the Great, in the great battle fought near it in 1709. A private person, one Paul Puden-

kof, has erected a monument, in remembrance of that event. It is a column, with a plate of brass affixed to it, on which is engraved a good representation of the battle.

Bumna gives greater scope to commerce. The above commodities are there found in great abundance. At this town also is collected the tobacco which goes to Riga and Petersburgh, under the appellation of Ukraine tobacco. The annual growth is about 40,000 quintals.

Nezin is the entrepot for the fur trade, between Russia and Turkey. The Greek and Armenian merchants procure furs from Moscow and send them to Constantinople. From Italy they draw many silks, and make a variety of purchases at the fairs of Leipsic. Part of these they dispose of at Moscow; the rest are dispersed through the Ukraine.

Gluchov lies in a corn country. At the neighbouring village of Tapol, there is a manufactory of sail cloth, the property of Count Romanzov Zaduenaisky.

Staradoub is the principal commercial town, after leaving Gluchov, advancing towards the north. It supplies much hemp, superiour to all other grown in Russia. The stalk is longer and stronger, and the colour finer, than any other. Nearly the whole has usually gone to Riga; but the conveyance of it to Cherson is much more convenient, since Staradoub is no more than twelve leagues from the Desna.

Briansk is situated on the bank of the Desna. It is very populous, and contains a great number of shop keepers, many of them very rich. Hemp forms the most important article of the considerable trade carried on here. Immense quantities of the best sort are collected in the territory of Briansk, and in all the adjacent places, as Prochese, Amelinsk and Pagara. Briansk is considered as an entrepot for hemp, whence the merchants of Riga and St. Petersburgh derive most of their purchases. From thence also, the merchants of Cherson procure that commodity. Besides the advantage of its situation on the Desna, Briansk has another, in the extensive forests on the bank of that river, which supply wood very well adapted for the construction of barges. These are always in readiness at the time of the thaw, and may be hired in any number for the immediate transportation of cargoes to Cherson. Many other commodities are procured at Briansk, such as iron, tar, tallow, honey, wax, bristles, tobacco, cordage, hemp seed and oil.

Masts may be obtained from Chichersk. This small town situated on the river Soz, is surrounded by pine-forests; but they do not contain trees of so large growth as do almost all the forests of the Ukraine. The Chichersk masts, destined for the Baltic, proceed down the Soz in rafts, to the confluence of that river and the Dnieper; thence they have to go up the Dnieper as far as Orsza or Orscha, beyond Sklov. At the beginning of winter, they are conveyed on sledges to the banks of the Dwina, and proceed to Riga the ensuing spring. This con-

veyance requires the labour of eighteen months, and sometimes more. The same difficulties occur in the conveyance of masts and ship timber in general, from the Ukraine and Lithuania to the Baltic. But the increased price in consequence of these difficulties does not impede their sale, because the excellence of their quality keeps them in constant demand, as they are preferred in all the arsenals of Europe. The first attempt to import them into France, by the way of Cherson, was crowned with complete success. The French government established agents at Cherson, for supplying Toulon with masts, timber and naval stores, just before the revolution. The forests, from which the masts were selected, belonged to Prince Poniatowski, and are situated at Babruisk, in Lithuania, near the river Beresina. On the fifth of May the rafts, containing two hundred and sixty four masts, passed Raezziza, a village situated immediately below the confluence of the Beresina and the Dnieper; and reached Kanieuw on the 27th. This town, equidistant from Kiow and Krementchuk, belongs to Prince Poniatowski. On the 10th of June the rafts arrived at Kaminka, a small village, a little distance above the cataracts, and on the 29th reached Gloubok. Thus only fifty four days were requisite to deliver the masts at a sea port of the Black Sea, while eighteen months were required to send them to Riga; and the navigation from Gloubok to Toulon is much shorter, and more safe than from Riga.

Sclov belonged to Poland before the first dismemberment of that kingdom in 1733. Of all the towns of White Russia, it is the most commercial. Hemp, which abounds in the environs, is the principal article, of which a considerable part used to go to Riga. But its exportation, by the way of Cherson, is the more easy, as the Dnieper runs through Sclov.

Kaluga is the largest, most populous and best built town between Cherson and Moscow. The dealers are very numerous. The river Oka or Occa, which empties itself into the Volga, runs through the town, in which there are several sugar-refineries. Tallow, wax and masts are found at Kaluga, where also there are several manufactories of sail-cloth and Russian leather. The distance from Briansk, being no more than forty five leagues, all the above commodities may be easily conveyed thither on carriages, and thence in barges to Cherson.

In all the above towns, a large consumption takes place of the products from the various commercial ports of Europe.

Moscow offers many advantages to Cherson, as well for importation as exportation, but principally the former. This city, one of the largest of Europe, is considered as the centre of Russian commerce. It exhibits an immense sale of foreign merchandise, as well for its own consumption, as for that of the provinces, which make most of their

purchases there. It is supplied chiefly from Petersburgh, though it receives articles from Siberia and other places; as also from the Black, Caspian, and Azof Seas, China, and India.

At Moscow there are manufactories of table-cloths, various kinds of linen and striped stuffs; besides sugar refineries and tanneries. Several other establishments for sail-cloth, and other goods, are dispersed over the district, which bears its name. Its exchange is established with Amsterdam and London. Few bills are drawn on Hamburgh or Paris.

The geographical position of Poland sufficiently indicates, that innumerable advantages to the commerce of the Black Sea, may be derived from connexions with the large and fertile provinces of that country. They supply all sorts of corn in the greatest abundance, tallow, wax, salt-petre, tobacco, oxen, pot-ashes, oak timber, hemp, flax, wool, masts, leather, honey, skins and coarse linen.

The produce of Poland may be conveyed to the ports of the Black Sea, by the Dniester to Akerman, to Otchakov by the Bog, and to Cherson by the Dnieper. Waving the manifest advantages of this triple interiour navigation, it is much more easy and economical to convey them to the Black Sea by land, than to transport them to the Vistula, and there embark them for the Baltic.

Cherson is celebrated as the place where the empress Catharine principally resided during her memorable journey to the Crimea, and where she was visited by Joseph II. It is also on record, as

the place where the illustrious Howard closed his career of humanity and benevolence.

Mr. Howard had been entreated to visit a lady about twenty four miles from Cherson, who was dangerously ill. He objected, alleging that he "*acted only as physician to the poor*;" but hearing of her imminent danger, he afterwards yielded to the persuasion of admiral Mordvinof, and went to see her. After having prescribed that which he deemed proper to be administered, he returned, leaving directions with her family, to send for him again if she got better; but adding, that if, as he much feared, she proved worse, it would be to no purpose. Sometime after his return to Cherson, a letter arrived, stating that the lady was better, and begging that he would come without loss of time. When he examined the date, he perceived that the letter, by some unaccountable delay, had been eight days in getting to his hands. Upon this, he resolved to go with all possible expedition. The weather was extremely tempestuous and very cold, it being late in the year, and the rain fell in torrents. In his impatience to set out, he mounted an old dray horse, used in admiral Mordvinof's family to carry water, and thus proceeded to visit his patient. Upon his arrival, he found the lady dying; this, added to the fatigue of the journey, affected him so much, that it brought on a fever. His clothes, at the same time had been wet through; but he attributed the fever entirely to another cause. Having administered something to his patient to excite perspiration, as soon as the symp-

toms of it appeared, he put his hands beneath the bed clothes to feel her pulse, that she might not be chilled by removing them, and believed that her fever was thus communicated to him. After this painful journey, Mr. Howard returned to Cherson, and the lady died.

It had been almost his daily custom, at a certain hour, to visit admiral Priestman; when, with his usual attention to regularity, he would place his watch on the table, and pass exactly an hour with him in conversation. The admiral, finding that he failed in his usual visits, went to see him, and found him weak and ill, sitting before a stove in his bed chamber. Having inquired after his health, Mr. Howard replied, that his end was approaching very fast; that he had several things to say to his friend, and thanked him for having called. The admiral finding him in such a melancholy mood, endeavoured to turn the conversation, imagining the whole might be merely the result of low spirits; but Mr. Howard soon assured him it was otherwise; and added: "Priestman, you style this a very dull conversation, and endeavour to divert my mind from dwelling upon death; but I entertain very different sentiments. Death has no terrours for me; it is an event I always look to with cheerfulness, if not with pleasure; and be assured, the subject of it is more grateful than any other. I am well aware I have but a short time to live; my mode of life has rendered it impossible that I should get rid of this fever. If I had lived as you do, eating heartily of animal food, and

drinking wine, I might, perhaps, by dimininshing my diet be able to subdue it. But how can such a man as I am, lower his diet, who has been accustomed for years to exist on vegetables and water, a little bread and a little tea? I have no method of lowering my nourishment, and therefore I must die. It is such jolly fellows as you, Priestman, who get over these fevers." Then turning the subject, he spoke of his funeral; and cheerfully gave directions concerning the manner in which he would be buried. "There is a spot," said he, "near the village of Dauphigny, which would suit me nicely; you know it well, for I have often said I should like to be buried there; and let me beg of you, as you value your old friend, not to suffer any pomp to be used at my funeral; nor any monument or monumental inscription whatsoever, to mark where I am laid; but lay me quietly in the earth, place a sun dial over my grave, and let me be forgotten." Having given these directions, he was very earnest in soliciting that admiral Priestman would lose no time in securing the object of his wishes; but go immediately and settle with the owner of the land for the place of his interment, and purchase every thing for his funeral.

The admiral left him upon his melancholy errand, fearing at the same time, that the people would believe him crazy, to solicit a burying ground for a man, who was then living, and whom no person yet knew to be indisposed. However, he accomplished Mr. Howard's wishes and returned to him with the intelligence; at this his countenance

brightened, a gleam of evident satisfaction came over his face, and he prepared to go to bed. Soon after, he made his will, leaving as his executor a trusty follower, who had lived with him more in the capacity of a friend than a servant, and whom he charged with the commission of bearing his will to England. It was not until after he finished his will that any symptoms of delirium appeared. Admiral Priestman, who had left him for a short time, returned and found him sitting up in his bed, adding what he believed to be a codicil to his will; but this consisted of several unconnected words, the chief part of which were illegible, and all without any meaning. This strange composition, he desired admiral Priestman to witness and sign; and in order to please him, the Admiral consented, but wrote his name in Russian characters, lest any of his friends in England, reading his signature to such a codicil, should think he was also delirious.

After Mr. Howard had made what he conceived to be an addition to his will, he became more composed. A letter was brought him from England, containing intelligence of the improved state of his son's health; stating the manner in which he passed his time in the country, and giving great reason to hope that he would recover from the disorder with which he was afflicted. His servant read this letter aloud; and when he had concluded, Mr. Howard turned his head towards him saying; "Is not this comfort for a dying father?"

They had in vain besought him to allow a physician to be sent for; but Admiral Mordvinof renewing this solicitation with great earnestness, Mr. Howard assented by nodding his head. The physician came, but was too late to be of any service. Some medicine was however administered, but shortly after he breathed his last.

He had always refused any portrait of himself to be made; but after his death, Admiral Mordvinof caused a plaister mould to be formed upon his face, which was sent to Mr. Wilberforce, after having a cast made for himself.

He was buried near the village of Dauphigny, about five versts from Cherson, on the road to Nicolajev, in the spot himself had chosen; and his friend Admiral Priestman performed the rites of sepulture, according to his desire. The rest of his wishes were not exactly fulfilled; the order of his funeral was more magnificent than would have met with his approbation. The Prince of Moldavia, the admirals, generals, other military, naval and civil officers, with a large escort of cavalry and an immense concourse of people on horseback and on foot, did honour to the manes of a real Christian, *who went about doing good.*

A monument was afterwards erected over him, which, instead of the sun-dial, consisted of a brick pyramid, or obelisk, surrounded by stone posts and iron chains.

THE

GOVERNMENT OF TAURIDA.

The Government of Taurida extends along the Black Sea, from the fortress of Kinburn, seated on the Liman straits, to the mouth of the river Cuban, which, from a point a little above the town of Ekaterinonslav, forms a part of the southern boundary of this province. The Government of Caucasus bounds it on the east, the territory of Catharinoslav, with that of the Don Cossacks, on the north, and Cherson on the west, from which it is separated by the Dnieper.

The whole of the province was called, by the most ancient writers, Scythia, and occupied by various tribes of barbarians, which were blended by the Romans under the common name of Sauromatæ. At a later period, that portion of European Sarmatia, within the province of Taurida, lying between the Dnieper and the Azof Sea, including the Chersonesus, Taurica or Crimea, was called Little Tartary. This is one of the most beautiful, fertile and important districts of country in the south of Russia. The pre-eminent advantages, which the Crimea, in a particular manner, presents for agricultural and commercial enterprise, renders it of the utmost consequence to the empire. The salubrity of the climate and the richness of the soil,

early induced its settlement, and the indentations of the coast offering safe and convenient harbours, numerous flourishing towns arose on their borders, which concentrated the trade of the Black Sea, in this peninsula, for a long succession of ages.

The Crimea is about two hundred and twenty five miles in circuit, situated between the forty fourth and forty sixth degrees of north latitude. Its shores on the south and west are laved by the Black Sea; the Sea of Azof and the straits of Zabache* enclose it on the east and the north. The isthmus, which joins it to the continent is not more than six miles in breadth, from the Sea of Azof, or rather an arm of it called Sivash, to the Black Sea. Three fourths of the peninsula, to the north, forms an undulated fertile plain, called Steppes, affording pasture to numerous herds and flocks.

The whole of the country from the fortress of Perecop, which commands the isthmus, to the river Salgir, abounds with salt marshes and lakes, which furnish immense quantities of excellent salt.

The Crimea may be divided into the flat country and the mountainous. The former, which extends from Perecop to Koslov, and from the river Bulganak to Karasubazar, Caffa, and Yenikale, is sprinkled with villages. The mountainous part is towards the south, along the Black Sea. The highest mountains extend from Balaklava to Caffa,

* Also called the straits of Yenikale, Caffa, and Taman; the ancient Cimmerian Bosporus.

or Theodosia. Their elevated platforms are covered with snow to the end of May. The Tartars, who feed their flocks on them, call these Alps, Yoila. The Tshatyndgh, or mountain of the Tent, near the village of Shuma or Shumai, is the highest of the mountains of the Crimea; its perpendicular elevation is nearly 1200 feet above the level of the sea. The greater part of these mountains consists of chalk masses, with petrifactions, beds of sand and marl, and chalk hills with flints. It is said that lead, copper and iron are found in them, as well as jasper, agate and chrystal. They are also very rich in lime-stone, marble, slates, sandstones, coals and naphtha. Among the calcareous rocks is an excellent marl, of the nature of fuller's earth, of a greyish colour, and possessing the property of soap. The mountains are covered with forests of oak, which yield excellent ship-timber. The vallies produce all sorts of corn, chiefly wheat, barley and millet; fine garden fruits, and excellent wine, particularly in the neighbourhood of Sudak, where it resembles champaign, both in colour and in strength.

Elevated plains and agreeable vallies, covered with the finest verdure, and situated between perpendicular calcareous mountains, especially the beautiful semicircular and amphitheatral vale, formed by the Tauridian mountains, on the southern side of the peninsula, form a most enchanting scenery, along the shores of the Euxine. These vallies, which are blessed with the climate of Anatolia and the lesser Asia; where the winter is scarcely sensible;

where the primroses and spring-saffron bloom in February and frequently in January, and where the oak often retains its foliage the whole winter, are, in regard to botany and rural economy, the noblest tract in Taurida, and perhaps in the whole empire. The fine and rich wood of this region, which is only interrupted by open and well cultivated lands, consists of every leafy kind. Among the richly variegated and beautiful flowers, are several hundred species not found elsewhere, in the Russian empire. These every where thrive and flourish in the open air; the ever-verdant laurel, the olive, the fig, the lotus, the pomegranate and the celis, which are probably the remains of Grecian cultivation, with the manna-bearing ash, the turpentine tree, the tan-bark tree, the strawberry tree from Asia Minor, and many others. This last covers the steepest cliffs of the shores, and ornaments them in winter by its perpetual foliage, and the red rind of its thick stem. In these happy vales the forests are filled with fruit trees of every kind. On the shores of the sea, the caper-bushes propagate themselves spontaneously; without the assistance of art, the wild or planted vines climb the loftiest trees, and twining with flowery creepers form festoons and hedges. The contrast of the orchards and the rich verdure, with the beautiful wildness, which the adjacent mountains and rocks present; which in some places rise among the clouds and in others are fallen in ruins; the natural fountains and cascades that agreeably present their rushing waters; the view of the sea, where the sight

is lost in the unbounded prospect; all these beauties together form so picturesque and delightful a whole, that even the poet or painter would be unable to conceive any thing more charming.

The two most considerable rivers of the Crimea are the Salgir and the Karusa, which fall into the Azof Sea. The former takes its source not far from Ahmetchet, and the second arises near Karasubazar, from which place, after having irrigated the adjacent plain, it flows into the Salgir. All the other rivers and streams that fall from the chain of mountains, beginning at Caffa, take a north and north-east course, excepting that which issues from mount Akta, beyond Akmetchet. The other rivers fall into the Black Sea; these are the Alma, Katsha, Belbek or Kabarta, Byuk or Kasikly Useen, Aithodor, Bulganak, Badrak, Dastasu, and Burultsha, which in other mountainous countries would only be considered as rivulets, but which, after a storm, are really rapid and dangerous torrents.

The northern part of the province of Taurida, denominated by the Russians, the Crimean Steppe, is about twice as large as the peninsula of Crimea, and constitutes the circles of Melitopol and Dneprousk. The land is generally excellent. Most of the inhabitants are Nogayan Tartars.

The Asiatic district of Taurida, is that part of ancient Scythia, or Sarmatia, which in modern times has been occupied by the Circassians and Cuban Tartars, until most of this territory was ceded to the Cossacks of the Black Sea.

The face of the country is diversified by extensive plains covered with luxuriant herbage; elevated regions, and lofty mountains, shaded with forests of oak, chestnut, beach, walnut and other trees. The soil in general is remarkably rich, and produces wheat, barley, oats, millet and indian corn. Melons, vines, peaches and apricots flourish in the open air; but less of the land is under cultivation than in the other southern regions of Russia. Numerous herds of uncommonly fine and large cattle, are pastured on the verdant steppes, which every where abound.

The Tchernomorski, or Cossacks of the Black Sea, are a brave, rude and warlike people, but hospitable to strangers. Their original appellation was Zaporogztzsi, or Zaporagians, denoting their former situation, "*beyond the cataracts,*" of the Dnieper. From the banks of this river they were removed, by the empress Catharine II. to those of the Cuban, in order to repel the incursions of the Circassians and Tartars.

In consequence of the service they rendered to Russia, in Catherine's last war with Turkey, the empress, by an Ukase of the second of June 1792, ceded to them the peninsula of Taman, and all the countries between the Cuban and the sea of Azof, as far as the river Aeyea or Eia, which runs into that sea, at Eiskoi, and the Laba, one of the branches of the Cuban; an extent of territory comprehending upwards of a thousand square miles. They had also a constitution allotted to them, in all respects similar to that of the Don Cossacks, and re-

ceived the appellation of the "Cossacks of the Black Sea." They were also allowed the privilege of choosing an Ataman, or chief; but their numbers have been considerably diminished. They could once bring into the field 40,000 effective cavalry, but at present their number of troops does not exceed 15,000. The Tchernomorski do not resemble the Cossacks of the Don, in habits, disposition, or any other characteristic quality. The latter wear the true uniform; the former wear any habit according to their caprice. The Don Cossack is mild, affable and polite; the Black Sea Cossack is blunt and even rude, from the boldness and martial hardihood of his manners. If he is poor, he appears clad like a primeval shepherd, or the wildest mountaineer; at the same time having his head bald, except one long braided lock, from the crown, placed behind the ear. This lock distinguishes the Tchernomorski Cossack, from the Cossack of the Don, as well as from every other tribe of Cossacks, in the Russian empire. If the Euxine Cossack is rich, he is very lavish in the costliness of his dress, which consists of embroidered velvet, and rich silks, and cloths of every variety of colour. The Tchernomorski are more cheerful and noisy than the Don Cossacks; turbulent in their mirth, vehement in their conversation; somewhat querulous; and if they are not engaged in dispute, they are generally laughing or singing. Both these Cossacks hold one another in low estimation.

The metropolis of the Tchernomorski Cossacks, is Ekaterinedara or "Catharine's Gift." It has

no resemblance to a town; but is rather a grove, or forest of oaks, in which a number of straggling cottages, widely separated, are concealed; not only from general observation, but from the view of each other. The country is covered with tumuli, which are very ancient, and appear by their remains to have been sepulchres. The government is wholly exercised by the Ataman and his officers, who wear splendid habits. Their breasts are covered with chains of gold and gold lace; their sabre is Turkish; their boots of red or yellow coloured leather; their cap of black velvet, ornamented with lace and silver chains, or fine black Tartarian wool, taken from lambs in an embryo state. They bind their waists with silken sashes, sustaining pistols, of the most costly workmanship. The lower extremity of their lance is supported by the right foot; and from the powder flask, pendent in front, are suspended silver coins, and other trinkets.

The Tchernomorski, who are employed in guarding their cattle in the steppes, amounting to many thousands, from the depredations of the Circassians, pass the night upon the bare ground. The Grecian or Melo-Russian inhabitants, whose number is small, live between the river Eia and the Don.

The river Kuban or Cuban is the Hypanis of the ancients. It rises in the Caucassian mountains, and is formed by the confluence of a number of small rivers. With the river Tumesek, it makes several islands between the sea of Azof and the Black Sea; of which, one of the finest is Taman. A

principal arm of the Cuban falls northward into the Azof Sea, and the other, southward into the Black Sea. The river in general, and the first arm in particular, has a rapid course and clear water; but that branch which falls into the Black Sea, flows in a very gentle current; has a troubled water and forms at its mouth a pretty spacious bay, which however is so shallow, that it can never serve as a haven to large vessels.

The Cuban has neither rocks nor water-falls, and therefore is well adapted to being navigated with vessels that do not draw much water. It receives the rivers Barakla, Barsukta, Yassix, Yassi, Urp, Sagrassa, Laba, Karabokan, and several others of less note.

In the mountainous part of the Cuban, its banks are very steep; but in the lower regions, they are flat. Here the country is one continued Steppe, almost entirely destitute of wood, but very fertile.

Before the submission of the Cuban Tartars, to the Russian empire, they had their particular Khan or chief, and could bring 40,000 men into the field, but most of them crossed the Cuban when their country was ceded to the Cossacks of the Black Sea. They led a wandering pastoral life.

The isle of Taman, which separates the two branches of the Cuban, is the territory, which opposed to the promontory of Kertchy, in the Crimea, constitutes those straits anciently called the Cimmerian Bosporus. The isle of Taman has an excellent, and in some districts, an ever verdant soil.

Taman is connected with the earliest history of Greece, and the most splendid periods of the Roman empire, from the commercial establishments, which were founded and maintained, on this island, by those nations. Many vestiges of ancient cities and buildings still remain, and numerous tumuli. In the midst of an extensive morass are the remarkable ruins of a considerable fortress looking like an old Roman castle. It is a square work having a tower at each angle, and is still almost entire. At the distance of two versts from this fortress, are other ruins, tombs and subterraneous excavations. On the Bay of Taman, immediately above some very high cliffs, are the remains of a very large fortress and tower, entirely surrounded by tombs and broken mounds of earth. The posthouse of Sienna is scooped in the cavity of an ancient tomb. Its environs are covered with tumuli of an extraordinary size. The Russian commander of engineers, some years since, employed the soldiers of the garrison, in opening the largest. It was quite a mountain. On the eastern side they discovered the entrance of a large arched vault, of the most admirable masonry. The materials were a white lime stone, filled with fragments of minute shells, such as the country now affords. The stones of the sides were all square, perfect in their form, and put together without cement. The roof exhibited the finest turned arch, having the whiteness of the purest marble. An interiour, vaulted chamber was separated from the outer, by means of two pilasters, swelling out wide towards their bases, and placed,

one on each side, at the entrance. Except a gold bracelet, the soldiers employed in the undertaking secreted what they deemed of value, that was found in the vaults, and destroyed others, which did not appear to merit preservation; among these, was a number of vases of black earthern ware, adorned with white ornaments. The bracelet weighed three quarters of a pound. It represented the body of a serpent, curved in the form of an ellipse, having two heads, which, meeting at opposite points, made the opening for the wrist or ancle, it being intended for the leg or arm. These serpent heads were studded with rubies, so as to imitate eyes, and to ornament the back part of each head by two distant rows of gems. The rest of the bracelet was farther adorned by graved work. This is the most ancient specimen of art, which perhaps exists in the world.

Similar tombs are found, on all the shores of the Bosporus. The size, grandeur and riches of those on the European and Asiatic sides of the Cimmerian straits, excite astonishing ideas of the wealth and power of the people, by whom they were constructed.

Sienna seems to correspond very accurately with the Cepvs of Strabo, and the Milesian sepulchres found there, in such abundance, may still further confirm this position. No less than three ancient bridges of stone lead to this place from Taman. They consist each of a single arch, built with great skill, and according to that massive solidity which bespeaks the works of remoter periods.

Near Taman are the ruins of the city of Phanagoria; the ground for some versts in extent, being covered with the foundations of buildings, among which have been discovered blocks of marble, fragments of sculpture, and ancient coins. Between Taman and Temrook, the lower part of a *soros* was discovered, many years since, the cover of which is probably that now used as a cistern at Yenikale.

Near the gate of the church yard of Taman, lies the marble slab, with the curious inscription, which threw so much light upon the situation of that ancient principality of Russia, once the residence of her princes, and then called Tamatarcan or Tmutaracan, which means literally the "Swarm of Beetles." It commemorates a mensuration, made upon the ice, by prince Gleb, son of Vladimir, in the year 1065, of the distance across the Bosporus, from Tmutaracan to Kertchy, which is found to correspond with the actual distance. The words of the inscription are to the following effect: "*In the year* 6576 [1065] *Indict.* 6. *Prince Gleb measured the sea on the ice; and the distance from Tmutaracan to Kertchy was* 30,054 *fathoms.*

Among the other antiquities of Taman, one of the most remarkable is an amphitheatre which seems to have been intended for exhibitions of naval combats. It is no less than a thousand paces in diameter, and all the floor paved with broad flat stones. Its form is circular, and every where surrounded by ruins and the foundations of buildings, which slope towards the vast area in the middle. On one

side only is a wide opening, that seems to have afforded the principal entrance. The subterranean conduits, through which the water was conveyed, still remain.

Crossing the area of the theatre, towards the south, are the remains of a temple, built after the Grecian model, and of considerable size. Near the ruins of this temple are those of some other public edifice, which must have been of prodigious size. The marble as well as the other stones, which the ancients employed in the buildings of Phanagoria, are all substances foreign to the country. The isle of Taman produces nothing similar. Two Cipolino marble columns lie in front of the church at Taman, each shaft consisting of one entire block, eighteen inches in diameter. Their capitals are of white marble, beautifully sculptured, having a representation of a ram's head at each corner, the curving horns of which make them resemble the Ionic order. Near the columns are two marble lions, as large as life, and each executed in one entire block. Two others are stationed before the house of the commanding officer of the district.

The Government of Taurida has a very agreeable climate. For almost nine months in the year, the inhabitants enjoy fine and warm weather, and nature here requires scarcely three months for recruiting her vigour. The spring usually begins with March; and commonly the greatest heat is from the middle of May to the middle of August. This is generally so violent, that it would be very

dangerous, but for the wind that blows regularly, every day from ten in the morning, till six in the evening, which makes it very supportable. Thunder, accompanied by heavy showers of rain, is here also not unfrequent, whereby the air is seasonably cooled. September and October are the finest months. The autumnal weather first appears about the middle of November. The frost comes in December and January; but it is very moderate, and lasts but a short time. However, it is to be remarked, that the flat part of this country differs from the mountainous, in this, that heat and cold are commonly greater in the former, and rain and snow more rare. In all the Districts of Taurida, a few places upon the Sivash excepted, the air is reputed to be very healthy.

The principal towns in the Government of Taurida are, Perecop, Koslov, Sevastopol, Balaclava, Theodosia, Kertchy, Yenikale, Akmetchet, Leucopolis, Baktcheserai, Karasubazar, Taganrock, St. Dametri Rastof, and Nakhtshivan in Europe; and Azof and Taman in Asia.

PERECOP, or Perekop, is a fortress on the isthmus which joins the Crimean peninsula to the continent, which has always been considered the key to the whole country. Its name is Sclavonian, denoting a cut made through a place, and applicable to the ditch dug there in remote ages, across the neck of land, at the entrance of the Crimea, for the security of the place. For the same reason the Greeks called it "Taphros or Taphræ."

A rampart extends from sea to sea, a distance of six miles. On the north side of this rampart, is a fosse, seventy two feet wide and twenty five deep. There is a garrison, customhouse and post office kept at Perecop. The village consists of a few scattered houses. Throughout the whole summer this place is a scene of great bustle and commerce. The shores of the isthmus, and all the neighbouring steppes, are covered with caravans, coming for salt, consisting of waggons, drawn sometimes by camels, but generally by white oxen, from two, to six, attached to each vehicle. Their freight is so easily obtained, that they have only to drive the waggons axle deep, into the shallow water, on the eastern side of the isthmus, and load as fast as they please, the salt lying on the bottom, like sand. The sight of so many waggons, by fifties at a time, in the water, is very interesting; they appear like fleets of small boats, floating upon the surface of the waves. The driver of each waggon pays a tax of ten rubles to the crown. Among the various reservoirs of salt in the Crimea, those of Perecop, used from time immemorial, are the most abundant, and they are considered as inexhaustible. Taurica was the emporium of this commodity in the earliest periods of history; and it was then sent as it is now, by the Euxine, to all the territories on its borders, to Constantinople, and to the Archipelago; by land, to Poland, and all over Russia, to Moscow, to St. Petersburgh, and even to Riga. The oxen, after their long journeys, are sometimes sold with the cargoes they have brought, and sometimes they re-

turn again, the whole of that immense distance, with other merchandise. The caravans halt every evening at sunset, when the drivers turn the oxen loose to graze, and lie down themeslves in the open air, to pass the night upon the steppe. Nothing can be more striking than the spectacle afforded by these numerous and extensive caravans, slowly advancing, each in one direct line, by hundreds at a time, and presenting a picture of the internal commerce, carried on by Russia, throughout all parts of her vast empire.

EUPATORIA. Koslof, Kozlov, Koslow, or Koslov, called by the Tartars Gusl'ove, when the Russians acquired possession of the Crimea, received the name of Eupatoria; but according to Clarke, the ancient Eupatorium stood in the minor peninsula of the Heracleotæ, near the city of Chersonesus. D'Anville places it where the small sea port of Akmetchet now stands. Eupatoria is on the western coast, at the head of a circular bay. The surrounding plain is but a little elevated, above the sea. The streets are narrow and winding; and the houses are surrounded by high walls. The Lazaretto is at the west end of the city, near the shore. The road is exposed to winds from every point of the compass, except the north, where it is protected by the city and the land. According to the ukase of 1798, this was to be one of the most favoured ports, and the emporium of all foreign nations.

The commerce of Eupatoria is very considerable. In the year 1797 sixty seven vessels entered the port, and one hundred and three departed. The exports are wheat, salt, hides, fur, tallow and butter. The wheat is brought from the Tauric plains, and the Eukrane, in waggons, which return laden with salt, and various imported articles.

This city suffered very considerably, in consequence of the wars between Russia and Turkey, but has been rising into consequence, since the perfect establishment of the Russian Government in the Crimea. The inhabitants consist of Russians, Tartars, Greeks, Armenians and Jews.

SEVASTOPOL, Sebastopolis, or Aktiar, is situated at the head of the great bay of Aktiar. The harbour is compared with those of Malta and Mahon. The entrance is protected by two batteries; another lies opposite to the city, two others are on the neck of land, and a semicircular one stands on the heights, to cover the entrance into Artillery bay. Besides the harbour on which the town was founded by the Russians, are Careening Bay, and the Bay of Quarantine. Sevastopol is exclusively considered as a port for men of war. The fleets of the world might ride secure, and have convenient anchorage, in the great harbour; and in any of the others, vessels find from twenty to seventy feet depth of water, and good holding ground. To the Russian Navy it is one of their most important possessions. The natural advantages of the harbour are truly surprising, and the largest vessels can lie within

a cable's length of the shore. The naval harbour is divided into three basins, affording shelter in every wind, and favourable situations for repairs and building. On a tongue of high land, between the two southern havens, stand the admiralty and store houses, and on the opposite side, the town. The principal arm of the harbour runs east, and is terminated by the valley and the little river of Inkerman.

Aktiar is so called from its white rocks. The old town stood on the north side of the harbour, where there are no remains of any consequence. The city contains two churches, one of which is a handsome building. The principal street is broad, and the stairs of the quay are spacious and magnificent. There are extensive barracks and magazines attached to the naval establishment.

Sevastopol is not intended for a commercial port, it nevertheless has some trade. Great numbers of vessels run in there, on account of the security of the harbour, to wait for favourable winds, perform quarantine, or refit. In consequence of the difficulty of conveyance by land, from the interiour of the country, the exports are not very great. Iron, cordage, hemp, duck and some other merchandise, brought from the mouth of the Don and Taganrock, occasionally may be obtained. The Greeks and Turks frequently unlade part of their cargoes at Sevastopol.

The country included within the isthmus, formed by the principal harbour of Aktiar, or Inkerman, the *Ctenus* of Strabo, and the port of Balacla-

va, is the HERACLEOTICK CHERSONESUS, so accurately described by that author as a portion of the *Peninsula Major*, or TAURICA CHERSONESUS. On this small district stood the cities of the old and new Chersonesus, and Eupatorium; the Temple of Diana, and the Promontory Parthenium, celebrated by the story of Iphigenia, on which was founded, one of the most affecting tragedies of Euripides; the famous Chersonesian Mole; with numerous ramparts, tombs, canals, and other works, the memory of which historians preserve, but the last traces of their magnificence are rapidly disappearing.

The rocks all around the extremity of the harbour of Sevastopol, are hewn into chapels, monasteries, cells, sepulchres, and a variety of works, which confound and astonish the beholder. A river flows here into the bay, after leaving one of the most beautiful vallies in Europe. At the mouth of this river the remarkable antiquities are situated, the excavations appearing on both sides. Those which first appear, to persons approaching from Aktiar, are on the south side, and have been converted into magazines for holding gunpowder. These caves seem to have constituted an entire monastery, as the rock has been so wonderfully perforated, that it now exhibits a church, with several chambers and long passages, leading off in various directions. Passing along these, the fine prospect of the valley of Inkerman is seen, through the wide, open arches, together with heaps of ruins, on the opposite side of the river. There

are several stone coffins cut in the rock, with Greek inscriptions above them. On the opposite side of the river, the excavations are still more frequent, and somewhat more distant from the bay. Crossing an ancient bridge, whose fair proportioned arch and massive superstructure, indicates masonry of some remote age, the caverns are so numerous as to occupy one entire side of a mountain, on the summit of which are the towers and battlements of a very large fortress, supposed to have belonged to the Genoese, but, perhaps originally was a part of the fortifications erected by Diophantus, one of the generals of Mithridates. From the appearance of the staircases, which conduct to it, and which lead also to the very caverns before mentioned, it is evident that a fortress was erected there, ever since the excavations were first made. Several chapels, with the remains of stone sepulchres, are among these chambers.

During the eighteenth century, the remains of the city of Chersonesus, were so considerable, that all its gates were standing. Among the interesting antiquities removed from this city to Aktiar, is a beautiful bas-relief of white marble, exhibiting sculpture, equal in perfection to some of the most admired productions of the art. It had closed the entrance to the tomb of a philosopher, by the name of Theagenes. It represents him and his wife. The drapery of the figures beautifully display the perfection to which the art of sculpture had attained among the inhabitants. The philosopher holds in his hand a scroll, in form and

size resembling the manuscripts found in Pompeii. His feet are bound in sandals. His wife is clad in a Grecian robe, which falls negligently in folds to the ground.

Leaving Aktiar, and following the coast westward, the bay is passed in which the Russian Artillery is stationed; then arriving upon the bay for quarantine, on its western side, appear the ruins and sepulchres of a town, perfectly distinct from that of Chersonesus, and which Mr. Clarke observes answers the situation assigned by Strabo, to Eupatorium, built by Diophantus. Strabo states that the promontory on which the town stood, inclining towards the city, at the distance of fifteen stadia, formed a considerable bay, beyond which was the *Ctenus*, and that the inhabitants built a mole across, which united the two towns. The remains of this mole Mr. Clarke found yet visible, and the distance, allowing for every stadium an English furlong, was percisely that which Strabo describes.

A place for the quarantine is now built upon the bay, and divides Eupatorium from Chersonesus; and immediately after passing the quarantine appears the promontory, on which stood the city of Chersonesus, now covered by its ruins. On its eastern side below the ancient walls of the town, are the sepulchres of the Chersonesians, in great number, ranged in very regular order. The plain between Chersonesus and Eupatorium is also covered by ruined buildings; and to the south of the former city, at the distance of a verst behind the pro-

montory, upon an eminence, is a tumulus of a size so remarkable, that it cannot fail to attract notice. Immediately after passing the promontory of Eupatorium, towards the east, begins the *Ctenus* or harbour of Inkerman; the entrance to which constitutes the *Road of Aktiar*, and which exactly corresponds with the account given by Strabo. The old walls both of the town of Chersonesus and of the buildings, which it contained, are extremely thick, being in fact all of them double. Two strong towers, one of which stood contiguous to the bay, were entire in 1794.

From the little harbour, lying between the cities of Chersonesus and Eupatorium, an artificial canal, winding round towards the walls of the former, and hewn in the rock, yet remains entire. It was calculated to admit vessels within the suburbs of the city.

On the south eastern coast of the Heracleotick Chersonesus, is the point of Phanari or the Light Tower. A very small peninsula advances into the bay of Phanari, which is entirely covered by the remains of an ancient fortress. It seems to have been once an island, connected with the main land by an artificial mole. From this peninsula the shore rises, and all the land, towards its utmost western extremity, is elevated. Ascending the sloping eminence thus presented, upon the top of it occur the walls, streets, dilapidated buildings and other ruins of old Chersonesus. The appearance of oblong pavements, mouldering walls, scattered fragments of earthern vessels, broken amphoræ, tiles

and bricks of aqueducts and other indications of an ancient city, prevail over the whole territory, quite to the sea. On the western side of the bay of Phanari, upon the sea shore, close to the water's edge, are the remains of a building, which formerly served as a light house, and probably gave the name to the western point, as well as the bay. An arched entrance, with two of the walls, of very massive and solid construction, are still visible.

East of Phanari is a bay, in which stands the monastery of St. George, in a picturesque and singular situation, so placed among sloping rocks as to seem inaccessible. The few monks who reside there, have formed their little gardens in terraces, one above another.

Between the monastery of St. George and Balaclava, is a stupendous cape, called by the Tartars *Aya Burun*, or the Sacred Promontory, and considered by many antiquarians, as the Parthenium of Strabo, where were celebrated the terrible rites in honour of the Taurick Diana. Two other promontories, between Sevastopol and St. George, have been designated by some travellers, as the sites of the fane and image of the demon. Although there does not appear to be any doubt, among ancient or modern writers, of the bloody sacrifices offered to this Deity, there is not the same concordance of opinion, to which of the Heathen goddesses she may be referred; whether she was of Scythian or Grecian origin.

BALACLAVA, or Baluclavo, is one of the most remarkable ports in the Crimea. From the town, which stands near the harbour, it appears like a small lake, land-locked by high precipitous mountains. The harbour is deep, and the entrance being very narrow, the water is as smooth as a pool. It is little more than a mile long, and four hundred yards wide. It affords excellent anchorage, and security in all kinds of weather. Ships of any burthen may find sufficient depth of water in it, and a safe asylum. The vale of Balaclava is hardly surpassed by any prospect in the Taurick peninsula. The wild, gigantic landscape, which, towards its southern extremity, surrounds the town; the houses covered by vines and flowers, and overshadowed by the thick foliage of mulberry and walnut trees, make it altogether enchanting. The name of the city is supposed to have had a Genoese origin, and is derived from *Bella Clava*, the beautiful port. The ancient name of the harbour was *Portus Symbolorum*. The heights round it, are the first objects descried by vessels, in sailing from the Canal of Constantinople.

The town was colonized by Greeks, during the reign of Catharine II., the place having been assigned them by the empress, for the services they rendered, in her last war with the Turks. The inhabitants therefore are principally emigrants from Misitra, Corinth, the isles of Cephalonia, and Zante, who live according to the manners and customs of their own country. They are polite and hospitable.

On the heights above the mouth of the port, are the ruins of a magnificent fortress, built by the Genoese, when they possessed this harbour. The arms of Genoa are upon the walls. The mountain on the north east side, is covered with its mouldering towers, and the rock itself, has been excavated, so as to exhibit stately magazines and chambers, the sides of which, are covered with coloured stucco.

The mountains, which surround the port, are of red and white marble. The shore is in some parts covered by a fine glittering sand, the particles of which consist wholly of gold-coloured mica, in a state of extreme division; making the most beautiful writing sand that can be used; and as it may be obtained in any quantity, would answer very well as an article of commerce. There has been nothing of the kind yet sold by stationers, which can be compared with the sand of Balaclava; for when scattered on fresh writing, it produces an effect, as if the ink had been covered with minute scales of polished gold, which it will retain for any number of years.

At the distance of about two miles from Balaclava are the traces of an ancient wall, extending from the mountains eastward of the harbour, towards the west, and thus closing the approach to the town on the land side. The other wall mentioned by Strabo, which extended across the Isthmus from the *Ctenus* to the *Portus Symbolorum* was discovered by professors Pallas and Clarke, during the tour of the latter, through the Crimea. It meets the wall of the Portus Symbolorum at right angles, and

thence extends towards Inkerman, where it meets the Ctenus. The distance between the two ports is five miles. All that now remains of this wall is a bank or mound; upon this the marks and vestiges of turrets are still visible.

Between the village of Shulu and Balaclava are several pits, in which the Tartars dig that kind of fuller's earth, called *Keff-kil* or *mineral froth*, literally *foam earth*, to which the Germans have given the name of Meerschaum. This earth has been a considerable article of commerce with Constantinople, where it is used in public baths to cleanse the hair of the women. It is also sold to the German merchant, for the manufacture of those beautiful tobacco pipes, which bear the name of *Ecume de Mer** among the French, and sell at such enormous prices all over Europe, after they have been coloured by long use.

East of Balaclava is the celebrated valley of Baider, which has attracted the attention of travellers more than any other part of the Crimea. It has been described under the title of the *Taurick Arcadia*, and *Crimean Tempe*. This valley is rather more than ten miles in length and six in breadth; so beautifully cultivated, that the eye roams over meadows, woods, and rich cornfields, enclosed and intersected by green hedges and garden plantations. The Tartar villages are neat and the inhabitants healthy. Protected from violent winds, and irrigated by clear streams, which fall from the hills, render this valley a happy retreat.

* Foam of the Ocean.

CAFFA, or Kaffa, was formerly the most flourishing and considerable city of the Crimea. It is situated on the declivity of a mountain; the buildings extending from north to south, with long walls, stretching on both sides, down to the sea; so that from the port, which is large, safe, and commodious, it exhibits a very agreeable appearance.

When Caffa was the capital of the Crimea, it contained within the walls, from forty to fifty thousand inhabitants, and the Tartars distinguished it, by the appellation of the lesser Constantinople.

The ancient Greek city of Theodosia is supposed to have stood near the position of Caffa, and when the Turks ceded their pretensions to the Crimea, to Catharine II., she declared this a free port and restored the name of Theodosia, but custom has not yet rendered it familiar.

The Genoese, when they attempted to acquire an independent trade with the East Indies, took possession of Caffa, in 1225, maintained it for more than two hundred years, and rendered it the seat of an extensive and flourishing commerce, with the East Indies and Europe. They adorned the port, strengthened and augmented the fortifications, and embellished the city with many stately edifices. The population was reduced to a few thousand, by the sanguinary wars of the last century, who inhabited a small number of wooden houses, amongst magnificent ruins, the vestiges of its ancient splendour. But the city has since rapidly increased and enjoys a flourishing trade. The bay is capable of containing several hundred ships, but is not

considered so safe a harbour in winter, as some others.

Caffa is one of the Russian quarantine ports in the Black Sea. All ships that have to perform quarantine, must either go to Caffa or Odessa, these being the only two establishments for that object, after which they can proceed to any other ports. The air is very fine and healthy. Caffa, besides the trade of the peninsula, is an entrepot for that of the ports on the Sea of Azof, the Don and other places, as far as Astrakan and Siberia.

The Sea of Azof is so shallow, that the boat navigation is very considerable from the Don, Taganrock, and various small ports on the coast, to Arabat, where a harbour has been formed. Boats also enter the Sivash at Yanitsi, and go to Arabat, for the whole of the Sivash is in fact a harbour. From Arabat by land to Caffa is only fourteen miles, and, as the country is nearly flat, a canal has been contemplated. Vessels arriving at Caffa, any month in the year, may begin to load immediately, even during quarantine, at little expense, the magazines being close to the water side. The waggons that bring merchandise from Arabat unload into boats.

The quaratine-Lazaretto, the customhouse, and all the buildings connected with those establishments, are upon the shore, and the natural locality of the ground and port afford every convenience that can be desired, for the expedition and economy of trade.

Ships of war have a secure anchorage in the Bay, the holding ground being excellent. It was contemplated in 1805, to run out the piers into forty feet water, to form ports for ships actually having the plague on board, for those under precautionary quarantine, and for those that have performed it, or are not subject to it. These works were afterwards commenced under the direction of General Fanshaw.

Caffa is found the most advantageous place for salting beef and pork for exportation. Cattle may be bought lean on the Don, the territory between that river and the Dniester, and on the Cuban, and pastured on the plains during the summer for a ruble a head. The beef may be packed for from three to four cents per pound. Lean hogs are driven to Caffa and there fattened on barley, which is very cheap.

The exports consist of wheat, rye, barley, oats, wine, wool, fine black and grey lamb skins, salt, iron, hemp, duck, beef, pork, butter, wax, hides, tallow, various kinds of fish, furs, leather, feathers, caviare, and many other articles. The imports are similar to those of Odessa and Cherson. An insurance company was established at Caffa in 1812.

The distribution of the former buildings of Caffa, may in some instance be accurately ascertained. On the southern side stood the Genoese citadel, the walls of which still remain, and the traces of its streets within the enclosure are still visible. There are numerous subterranean chambers and spacious magazines, of the most massive and gigantic stile of architecture. Several inscriptions re-

main in the walls. The rest of this enclosure offers a promiscuous heap of ruins.

The opposite side of the city was the residence of the Tartars, which is now inhabited. Centrally situated between the two, and somewhat elevated on the hills above them, stood that portion of the city which was inhabited by the Armenians. It is now a scene of ruins.

Although all travellers are not satisfied that Caffa occupies the site of Theodosia, D'Anville and others give it that position.

On the elevated territory above the Tartar city, close to the walls of the old Armenian fortress, is a circular building, very like those ruined edifices upon the coast of Baia, near Naples, which are considered the remains of either the baths or temples of the ancients. It is now a ruin. Professor Clarke removed part of the stucco, which loosely adhered to the wall, and beneath appeared a beautiful covering of coloured plaster, exactly resembling that which is found in Pompeia, and in Herculaneum. In the centre of the old pavement of this building, a very curious bas-relief has been discovered. The upper part represented two crowned heads, and the lower, a stair case conducting to the mouth of a stone sepulchre.

The remaining buildings of Caffa which deserve notice, are for the most part within the Tartar city. They consist of very magnificent public baths and mosques, all of which are in a dilapidated state; a few minarets, a Turkish coffee house; an unfinished palace of the late Khan of the Cri-

mea, and a large stone edifice which was once a mint.

KERTCHY, or Kertsch, in Russian Vosfor,* was founded by a colony of the Greeks from Miletus, and afterwards subdued by the Kings of Bosporus, who made it the regal residence. In the year of Rome 689, it was taken by Mithridates, king of Pontus, who in consequence of the rebellion of his son Pharnaces, was besieged in the castle, and at his own request, put to death by an officer of the Gauls, who had forced the walls. Pharnaces sent the body to Pompey, at Amisias, who caused it to be buried in Sinope. The town of Kertchy stands on the site of the ancient Panticapæum, in the broad part of a secure bay, near the entrance of the straits of Taman, and contains 1500 or 2000 inhabitants. It is defended by a fort and battery, which command the harbour, and has a citadel on some steep rocks, which overlook the town. It is rather a military post than a commercial port. The trade is limited, but the harbour is much resorted to by vessels passing the Cimmerian Bosporus. The inhabitants are principally Greek fishermen, and a few Jews.

There is no place in the Crimea where the traveller will find so many antiquities as in Kertchy; but the havock made in all the towns on this peninsula, during the various revolutions, and frequent changes of inhabitants, which the country has sustained, has confused or annihilated almost every document for the illustration of its former history.

* The Russians call the Bosporus, Vosfor.

The traditions of Kertchy are in direct contradiction of history; for they relate not only that Mithridates died there, but that he was buried a short distance from the town, where they still pretend to shew his tomb. It is four versts distant from Kertchy, near the road leading to Caffa. The Tartars call it *Altyn Obo*. It stands on the most elevated spot, in this part of the Crimea, and is visible for many miles round. The tumulus is placed exactly upon the vallum, which formed the inner barrier of the Bosporian empire. This work still exists, in an entire state, having a fosse in front, and passing across this part of the peninsula, in a northerly direction, from the Altyn Obo, to the Sea of Azof. Several other similar heaps, of astonishing size, are situated near the tumulus, although it towers above them all, and the plains below are covered with others of smaller dimensions.

The shape of the Altyn Obo is not so conical as usual in ancient tumuli; it is rather a semi-spheroid. Its sides present that stupendous masonry, which is seen in the walls of Tiryus, near Argos, in the Morea; where large unshapen masses of stone are placed together without cement.

On the eastern side of it is a pit, formed, probably, by some persons, who wished to penetrate the interiour of this immense pile. The Tartars have attempted to effect a passage; but the stones fell in as they proceeded, and rendered their labour vain. Yet they have a tradition, that an entrance

was once accomplished, and pretend to describe the interiour, as a magnificent vaulted chamber, formed by enormous stone slabs.

The view from the top of the *Altyn Obo* is one of the finest in the Crimea. A range of similar heaps continues along the lofty ridge, on which this tumulus stands, the whole way to Kertchy, the last object being the high mountain, on which the ancient citadel of the Bosporus was placed. From this precipice, Mithridates threw the body of his son Xiphanes into the sea. The palace of Mithridates was probably a fortress, and the traces of its foundation are yet visible, near a small, semicircular excavation, in the rock, which is also a work of great antiquity. One of the tombs in the range before mentioned, although not so large as that attributed to Mithridates, is equally remarkable. It is surrounded near the vertex of its cone, with a circular wall of stones, placed regularly together, without cement. Part of it is entire. Beyond this ridge, and these tumuli, the view comprehends the whole of the Cimmerian Bosporus, the harbour of Panticapæum, the opposite coast of Phanagoria and a great variety of objects, among which the passing fleets of European and Asiatic merchants, from all the ports of the Black Sea, the Sea of Azof, Archipelago and Mediterranean, are not the least interesting. On all the distant promontories, towards the east, over all the plains below, and wherever else the eye can roam, except beyond the Bosporean vallum, appear the ancient tumuli. Ancient coins are often discovered, in the soil about

Kertchy. The walls of the town are full of broken and entire marbles, with bas-reliefs and inscriptions. Some of these fragments are used as steps before the doors of the houses. Many of the inhabitants have placed ancient Greek marbles over the doors of their houses, by way of ornament.

It is from Panticapæum, that the imaginary Anacharsis of the Abbe Barthelemy, is said to have embarked for his travels in Greece. Herodotus observes, that Anacharsis the Scythian, was the only individual of superiour learning and accomplishments known within the limits of Scythia. He visited a large part of the world, and at length returned to Scythia. In his passage over the Hellespont, he touched at Cyzicus, at the time the inhabitants were celebrating a solemn festival to Cybele. He made a vow, if he should return safe and without injury to his country, he would institute in honour of this deity, the same rites which he had seen performed at Cyzicus, together with the solemnities observed on the eve of her festival. Arriving in the district of Hylæa, near the course of Achilles, he performed his promise. In this situation he was observed by one of the natives, who gave intelligence of what he had seen, to Saulius, the Scythian king, who went immediately to the place and killed him with an arrow. His moral character was of such high estimation, that Cicero does not scruple to call him *sobrius, continens, abstinens et temperans*. He gave rise to the proverb, applicable to men of extraordinary endowments, of *Anacharsis inter Scythas:* he flourished

in the time of Solan. The idea of his superiour wisdom and desire of learning, gave rise to the name of the Abbe Barthelemy's excellent work.

Before the gate of the fortress of Kertchy, now a ruin, is a beautiful marble fountain, said to be the work of the Turks, but composed of ancient materials, some of which exhibit Turkish characters, and others Greek inscriptions of more remote date. Over the entrance, is a large marble lion; and marble columns, with fragments of marble entablatures, lie scattered about, either upon the ground, or among the stones, used in erecting the walls. Within this fortress stands the church, a building of considerable antiquity. The pictures, suspended on its walls, are among the earliest productions of Grecian art, brought into the Russian empire, and probably coaeval with the introduction of Christianity. Four marble pillars of the Corinthian order support the roof of this building; and according to an inscription upon one of them, the church was erected in the year of Adam 6265, which answers to 757 of our era.

Between Kertchy and Caffa, is another ancient boundary or *vallum*, like that before described, on which may be discerned the traces of turrets. The remains of the third, or outer *vallum*, of the Bosporians, which separated their peninsula from the country of the Tauri, are still to be seen. This wall extends from the Sea of Azof, beginning eastward of Arabat, to the mountains behind Caffa.

YENIKALE, or as it is frequently written Jenikale, is situated at the extreme end of the Bosporian

peninsula, on the southern shore. It has a good roadstead, where ships often come to, and wait for favourable winds, to pass through the straits. The town contains about two thousand inhabitants. The fortress, from which the place has derived its name, Yenikale being composed of two Turkish or Tartar words signifying *The New Castle*, stands upon some high cliffs, above the town, and is twelve miles distant from the opposite shore. The usual garrison in Yenikale and Kertchy consists of a regiment of chasseurs and a battalion of artillery. In one of the towers of the citadel is a fountain; and the source from whence it is derived, supplies a conduit on the outside, near the base. The water flows in by aqueducts from a spring, four miles distant, and falls at the bottom of the tower, into the cavity of an ancient marble *soros*. This *soros* is of one entire block of white marble, of the weight of two or three tons.

About four miles from Yenikale, towards the Mæotis, on a rock, advanced into the sea, is the point on which the ancient Pharos formerly stood; and this spot is still called by the Greeks PHANARI, and by the Russians PHANAR, which in either language, implies a lantern or light-house. The ruins of the old foundation are still visible. Tradition ascribes it to the time of Mithridates, and the modern Greeks generally bestow upon it the name of *Phanari Mithradati*.

The medals of the Bosporus are among the most rare in the cabinets of Europe. In the short distance from Yenikale to Kertchy, which is little

more than seven miles, are many remains of ancient buildings and a great number of tumuli. About half way, on the right hand side of the road, is a stratum of lime-stone, hewn in a semi-circular manner, so as to present an area, the sides of which are thirty feet perpendicular. In the middle of this area is a deep well, bored through the solid rock, which must have been a work of great labour, as the depth to the water is at least fifty feet.

Yenikale is almost wholly inhabited by Greeks, whose principal subsistence is derived from the extensive fisheries on the coast; they are remarkable for their cleanliness, and for the attention paid to decency and order in their dwellings, which is generally the case, with both the Greeks and Tartars in the Crimea. The women are most exemplary housewives, gentle, humane, obliging and deserving of the highest praise.

The most considerable fisheries on the peninsula of Taurida are at Kertchy and Yenikale, where the capture usually begins in May and continues till some time in October. The salted and smoaked mackerel, called by the Turks skumri, are an important article of trade, and are sent to Constantinople, and to all the maritime towns of Anatolia and Rumelia. These fish are transported in tons, and a thousand of them are sold on the spot, for three or four piastres. Considerable quantities of smaller kinds of fish are sent away dried and salted, also sturgeons, sterlets and suruks.

AKMETCHET, or *White Mosque*, to which the Russians have given the name of Simpheropol,

is situated in the interiour, about fifty versts N. E. of Sevastopol. The small branch of the river Solgir flows in the valley, on one side of which the town stands. This place became important from the circumstance of its being the residence of the governor general of the Crimea. It has a garrison of from a thousand to fifteen hundred men. The country in the vicinity is rich, and abounds in apples, pears, plums, pomegranates, olives, grapes, melons, and garden vegetables; among them a species of cucumbers of immense size and snow white. They attain the length of two feet, without running to seed, or losing their crisp and refreshing flavour. In the rear of the town, is the fortress of Monkoop of very extraordinary magnitude, and may be described as literally in the clouds. It covers the summit of a semicircular, insulated mountain. This, from its frightful aspect, its altitude, and craggy perpendicular sides, independent of every other consideration, than as a surprising work of nature, fills the mind with wonder, upon entering the defile which leads to it. In that singular situation, where there were no visible means of ascent towards any of the heights, much less of conveying materials for the astonishing work they completed, did the Genoese construct a citadel, perhaps without a parallel in Europe; the result of their wealth, address and enterprise. The last possessors of Monkoop were Jews. Ruined tombs of marble lie in the cemetery of their colony beneath the trees near the base of the mountain. The ascent to the fortress was

once paved the whole way, and stairs formed, which still remain entire in many places. The summit of the mountain is covered with the remains of the castle, churches and other public buildings. On the most elevated part of this eminence is a beautiful plain of fine turf, sprinkled with dwarf roses.* On the north eastern point of the summit, is a cavern, neatly chiselled out of the solid rock, called by the Tartars the *Cape of the winds.* In the four sides are large arched windows. From the amazing prospect here commanded, of all the surrounding country, it probably served as a post of military observation. Below this cavern is another chamber, leading to several cells, on its different sides; these have all been cut out of the same rock.

Not far from this mountain is the village of Shulu, which belonged to Professor Pallas, and consists of a forest of walnut trees,† beneath which every dwelling is concealed. One of these trees yielded him, in a single season, sixty thousand nuts. The professor built himself a very magnificent seat at Shulu, on the northern side of the defile, commanding a fine prospect of the valley. Near this hill, on one side of the eminences, opposite to the professor's house, is a series of ancient excavations. One of these chambers is eighty paces in length, with an appropiate breadth, and its roof is supported by pillars hewn in the rock.

Akmetchet will long be celebrated as the residence of Professor Pallas, so well known to the

* Rosa pygmæa of Pallas.

† Juglans regia, the common European Walnut.

literary world. This distinguished Prussian naturalist was invited by the Empress Catharine II. to accept of the professorship of natural history, in the Imperial Academy of Sciences, at St. Petersburgh, in the year 1767. After having travelled through various provinces of Russia, and published many valuable works, on the natural history of that empire, finding his health by long and incessant labours upon the decline, so as to render it necessary for him to remove to a warm climate, the empress, on preferring his request to her, granted him an estate in the Crimea, and a present of 10,000 rubles for making an establishment. He removed to Akmetchet in 1795, and resided in that town, or his village of Shulu, devoted to science, until 1811. During the latter part of that year, he made a visit to his brother, in his native city of Berlin, where he soon after died, in the seventy-first year of his age.

The neighbourhood of Akmetchet abounds with game, and the inhabitants amuse themselves with almost every kind of European chase. They hunt the stag, the fox, and the hare. Hawking is also a favourite pursuit, the Tartars being very skilful in training birds for that purpose. During the year 1816, Alexander directed that an imperial botanical garden should be established at Akmetchet, which was immediately commenced, and already contains a numerous collection of plants, particularly of such as are indigenous to the southern regions of Russia.

STARA CRIM, or Eski Crim, is an interiour town of the Crimea, twenty four miles north-west of Theodosia, and from which the whole peninsula has probably derived its name. It is situated in a fertile plain, on the slope of a mountain, and was doubtless the Cimmerium of the ancients. Its modern name is Leucopolis. The approach to the town, is by a bold valley, or defile, formed by a mountain detached from the southern ridge. Passing a bridge, whose massive masonry resembles the style of labour used by the ancient Etruscans, in the walls of Crotona, appear the remains of mosques, baths, and a profusion of mouldering edifices; some of which retain marks of great magnificence. One of the baths is still entire. It consists of a large area, covered by a beautiful dome, surrounded by eight smaller chambers; and its walls were of ancient stucco, coloured in distemper.

In the midst of these very picturesque ruins, sheltered by the mountains and shaded by trees, stands one of those villas, or palaces, which were erected for the empress Catharine, when she visited the Crimea. The ancient palace of the Chans, who resided in this place before they removed to Baktsheserai, is in a tolerable state of preservation.

The beautiful orchards, which surrounded Stara Crim, are almost destroyed, and few are left of those numerous mulberry trees, which induced Prince Potemkin to establish a nursery for rearing silk worms, and a silk manufactory near this place.

All the environs contain traces of a formerly considerable population. It was considered as the capital of the country by the Genoese, when they were established in the peninsula.

KARASUBAZAR lies about twenty miles north of Caffa. The number of inhabitants amounts to between three and four thousand; a population, which includes a very mixed race of Tartars, Russians, Greeks, Jews, Italians, and Armenians. Many of the houses have been erected with bricks, which have never been burned, but merely formed in a mould and afterwards hardened by exposure to the sun and air.

All the commodities of the Crimea are said to be purchased at a cheaper rate in Karasubazar than any other market of the peninsula. A long street of shops extends the whole length of the town, where are sold leather, particularly of the morocco kind, prepared by the inhabitants, pottery, hard ware, soap, candles, fruit, and vegetables.

BAKTCHESERAI, Bakscisarai, or Bocca-Serai, was once the residence of the Khans, and the Tartar capital of the Crimea. It is thirty versts in a south eastern direction, from Akmetchet, and is one of the most remarkable towns in Europe, from the novelty of its manners and customs, which are strictly oriental, and betray nothing whatsoever of a European character; and the site of the town itself, which occupies the craggy sides of an enormous, natural fosse, between two high

mountains. The view breaks all at once upon the traveller, in a most irregular and scattered manner; while bubbling fountains, running waters, gardens, terraces, hanging vineyards, and groves of the black poplar, seem to soften the horrour of rocks and precipices, and even make them appear inviting.

The religious veneration with which the Tartars regard their fountains, induces them to spare no expense, which may enrich them with the purest water. These fountains are almost as necessary to the ceremonies of the mosque, as they are ornamental to the town; since every true Mussulman washes his head, beard, hands and feet, before he proceeds to prayer. The number of fountains is so great at Baktcheserai, that they are seen in all parts of the city; water flowing from them day and night, as cold as ice, and as clear as chrystal. One of them has ten spouts, from which the purest streams continually fall upon slabs of marble. Here, four times in every twenty four hours, the Tartars, invoked by their *Mollas* from lofty minarets, are seen assembled, performing their ablutions and proceeding to their mosques.

This city has suffered very considerably from the ravages of war. The principal palace of the Khans is still entire. It is situated in the midst of gardens, from which circumstance, the city derives its name, Baktcheserai signifying, *a place situated in a garden.* Those gardens are filled with fountains and fine fruit trees. The interiour of the palace presents that kind of scenery, which

eastern romances describe, and our theatres endeavour to represent; consisting of chambers, galleries, and passages, so intricate and irregular, that it is impossible to give any description of the plan, by which they are put together, or the purposes for which they were erected. A large hall, opening by means of arches to the gardens of the seraglio, and to different courts, receive several staircases, which wind to various parts of the palace. From this hall a door conducted the Khan to a small mosque, for his private devotions. A very handsome bath was prepared in one part of the palace, for the accommodation of the empress Catharine II., during her visit to this place, which is preserved.

The population in 1801 amounted to near six thousand. In this number were included above eleven hundred Jews, four hundred and twenty of which were registered as merchants. The number of the Tartars did not exceed three thousand; of which number twenty belonged to the class of nobles, two hundred and thirty seven were merchants, one hundred and seventy three priests, and seventy eight students of divinity.

About five versts from the city, is the Jewish colony of Dschoufoutkale, situated on a mountain. These Jews are of the sect called *Karia;* they inhabit an ancient fortress originally constructed by the Genoese, upon a very lofty precipice. This settlement contains twelve hundred persons of both sexes, where they exist secluded from the rest of mankind, in the free exercise of

their ancient customs and peculiarities. The honesty of these Jews is proverbial in the Crimea; and the word of a Karaite is considered equal to a bond. Almost all of them are engaged in trade or manufacture. They use very extraordinary care in the education of their children, who are taught publicly in the synagogues, and in this respect the Tartars are not deficient.

On the side of the mountain, where these most worthy Jews reside, is a very remarkable example of the power of human labour, in a Greek monastery or chapel, hewn in the very side of the precipice, and in such a manner, that nothing of it is visible but the small perforated cavities, through which light was communicated to the interiour. The Greeks in the Crimea were forbidden by the Tartars the use of any public church, nor were they allowed to exercise publicly, the functions of their religion; in consequence of which, like the persecuted Arians, they fled to rocks and precipices, secretly excavating the most inaccessible caverns, and passing to their subterraneous shrines by small winding staircases, concealed from the most prying observation. This result of their labour and piety, remains one of the most singular curiosities of the Crimea. Above the remains of that part of the ancient city, which formerly belonged to the Greeks, in the very highest of the rocks, is an iron ring, to which according to the traditions of the country, vessels were formerly fastened, although they must have rode several hundred feet above the present level of the sea. Not-

withstanding it is an indisputable fact, that the surface of the Euxine, at some very distant period, was much higher, and overflowed a great portion of Scythia, it is incredible, that ships should have been moored to this celebrated ring; still Baron de Tott admits the wonderful tradition.

TAGANROCK was founded by Peter the Great in 1696. It is situated on the declivity of a lofty promontory, commanding an extensive prospect of the Sea of Azof, and the whole European coast to the mouth of the Don. Azof itself is visible in fair weather from the heights of the citadel. From the shallowness of the water, vessels drawing from eight to ten feet, cannot approach nearer than nine miles of the town, where they discharge and receive their cargoes, in lighters.

The fortress is a regular, extensive work, and stands upon the eminence, from which the town takes its name. Immediately under the fortress, Peter built an arsenal for his small armed vessels, employed against the Turks and the Tartars of the opposite coast. The harbour was shut in by a pier, where the fleet lay protected during the rigours of winter. To render it more secure and convenient, he formed an island, three versts from the shore, on which a fort was erected, and cut a channel from the arsenal, past the island, several versts into the sea.

The houses in the city are generally built of wood, and the streets are narrow. The best edifices are in the suburbs, where there is an extensive market.

In the year 1808, Taganrock contained between eight and ten thousand inhabitants. Formerly there were seventy thousand. It is rapidly recovering from the ruined state, in which it was left by the Turks, to whom it capitulated and was razed, during the wars between Russia and the Ottoman Porte, previous to the conquest of the Crimea, by the former.

Taganrock from its situation, at the head of the Sea of Azof; the facility of communication with the interiour, by the Don and the Volga; being in a fertile part of Russia, and in the vicinity of the Caspian Sea, enjoys a direct trade in most of the staple articles of the empire, and may be considered a very important commercial port, notwithstanding the natural impediments, which render it less eligible for an emporium, than many other cities, on the northern shores of the Euxine.

The Sea of Azof is obstructed by ice three or four months in the year, and sledges pass from Taganrock to Azof. Navigation is seldom safe earlier than April. When the ice is supposed to have passed, a small vessel is sent from Taganrock to Kertchy, and vice versa. After this signal the navigation commences. From April to the middle of July, a south-west wind prevails very steadily, which greatly increases the depth of water, and favors the arrival of vessels. In autumn the Sea of Azof is shoalest. As soon as the first ships make their appearance, the waggons begin to arrive from the interiour, and within forty days, from three to four thousand cover the plains near the town.

Six or eight thousand come from the Ukrane, in the course of the season.

There are three fairs held at Taganrock during the year; in the months of May, August and September; to which people resort from a great variety of countries. The diversity of nations, observable among the inhabitants of Taganrock, is altogether without example. The individuals of fifteen or twenty nations have been observed in the streets at the same time; all of whom were not more remarkably distinguished by their respective dresses and habits, than by the harmony and friendship which existed among them. No one seemed to regard the other as a stranger. In their societies and intermarriages, each individual preserves his mode of dress, and exercises his rule of worship, without making the smallest sacrifice to etiquette, by any alteration in his national habits, or giving the slightest offence to the parties with whom he is connected. Even the common disputes and petty quarrels, so frequent in the markets of large commercial towns, appear to be unknown to the motley tribe who people this place; yet Babel itself could hardly have witnessed greater variety of language. Russians, Greeks, Armenians, Tartars, Cossacks, Germans, Poles, French, Circassians, Persians, English, Turks, Ragusians, Jews, Italians, Prussians and Hungarians, all trade at this place. As the commerce of Taganrock increases, we may reasonably conclude, from this view of its inhabitants, that almost every nation upon earth will have its agent there.

The climate is in the two extremes of heat and cold; during the summer the most scorching heat prevails, and in the winter the frost is intense; but in the spring and autumn, the temperature is mild and pleasant.

The following are the principal articles of export.

Wheat. The wheat of Taganrock and its environs is of the best kind, being what is called Arnaut, of a fine yellow or gold colour. From three to five hundred cargoes, of two hundred tons each, of this grain are annually brought into the market, and shipped for Constantinople, the Archipelago and Mediterranean; or sent coastwise to the various ports in the Black Sea.

Tallow. About one hundred thousand poods of tallow are collected each year, part of which is sent to St. Petersburgh.

Bees-wax is made in great quantities. At the fair of Coronea, ten or fifteen thousand poods are exposed for sale.

Wool. Immense quantities of wool, particularly of the coarser kind, are exported. The qualities are various, and differ in price, from two to thirty five rubles the pood. Peter I. took great pains to promote the increase of sheep. He presented to the family of Nadarzenski, ten thousand, of different breeds, for that purpose, with the condition that none of them were to be killed.

Hemp and flax are plenty. The hemp of Ozel is esteemed the best, although all that grows in the neighbourhood is good.

Red and white wine is sent down the Don from Tscherchaskoy, the capital of the Don Cossacks. It resembles Burgundy and Champaign, having the aroma and flavour of the former, and the sparkling effervescence of the latter. When it has acquired a certain age, it sells at Tscherchaskoy for half a dollar a bottle. If the Cossacks would suffer their grape to thoroughly ripen, and were acquainted with the best methods of making wine, it is the opinion of gentlemen, who have visited that delightful country, that the wine of the Don would certainly surpass all the wines of the world, so rich and generous are the grapes, from which it is expressed. It is put up in bottles of the shape and size, and corked and wired, like the Champaign.

Coal. Among other commodities the merchants of Taganrock have recently begun to export a kind of pit coal, of an excellent quality, resembling that of Scotland. This fossil is met with near the sources of the Krynka and the Donetz, eighty miles from the city. It is also found on the banks of the Skrynorka, near the Donetz.

Caveare, it is well known, is the prepared and salted roes, which are got in abundance from the large kinds of fish. It is made on the Don, Volga and other rivers of the Black, Caspian and Azof

Seas. The Uralian Cossacks are particularly famous for making excellent caveare. The best is obtained from the several kinds of *sturgeon*, the *sevrugus* and the *beluga*. Most of the caveare exported from Russia goes to Italy. Fifty thousand poods are annually shipped at Taganrock. It is prepared in three different ways. The worst sort is the common pressed caveare, *payusnaia ikra*. The roes are cleansed of the coarsest filaments, preserved with about two pounds of salt to the pood, and then spread upon mats in the sun to dry, after which it is trodden with the feet into packages. A better sort is that called the grained caveare, *sernistaia ikra*, but is too salt to be agreeable to most persons. The cleansed roes are salted in long troughs, with eight or ten pounds of salt to the pood, well mixed by shovelling it over and over; then put by portions into sieves or thick nets; stretched out to drain and to coagulate, after which it is immediately pressed into casks.

The cleanest and best sort is that, which to appearance, consists entirely of the eggs of the roes, and does not easily become fetid, termed from its preparation *mescheschnaia ikra*. The first thing done is to get ready a strong brine; then long narrow bags of strong linen; these are half filled with fresh roes, on which the brine is poured, until the bags are full. When the brine has oozed through the bags, which hang on transverse poles, they are powerfully wrung with the hands one after the other; and the roes after drying for ten or twelve hours in the bags, are put into small casks.

From the Volga large quantities of unsalted caveare are sent to all parts of the country. The method used at Taganrock in curing the roes, is by putting them, after being well cleansed and salted, into cisterns, with a number of holes in the bottom, through which they are set to drain by weights laid on the top, or are wrung in linen bags, then pressed into casks, with fish oil poured over the surface, in order to keep it from the air.

A reddish kind of caveare, *krassnaia ikra*, is prepared, in some parts of the empire, from the roes of the white salmon and the pike. All the other kinds of caveare are jet black. It is generally eaten with oil, vinegar, bread and fresh butter; at first it has a strong fishy taste, but after eating it once or twice, the palate becomes reconciled to it.

Isinglass is a product, the preparation of which is almost peculiar to Russia. It is made in all places where the sturgeon and other kinds of large fish are caught; as on the Dnieper, the Don and especially on the Caspian; also on the Volga, the Ural, the Oby and the Irtysh. The isinglass is made from the sounds of these fish.

On the Volga, that prepared from the sturgeon is reckoned the best, next to that the *beluga*; but that from the *sevrugus* is mixed with the sturgeon. But isinglass is also prepared from sterlets, shad, and barbel, though not so good. By some, however, the sterlet-isinglass is much esteemed as glue; it is particularly tenacious, and is excellent in inlaid cabinet-work. All these kinds of sounds

are watered while fresh, afterwards dried, the outer skin taken off, and the inner glossy white, which is properly the gluten, twisted into various shapes and so dried. The best is usually rolled into little ringlets; the second sort is laid together like the leaves of a book; and the most ordinary is dried without any care.

On the Okka, where only the sterlet is to be had, the sounds are beaten, just as they are extracted from the fish and dried. The sounds of the shad are pounded, and as the glue does not entirely dissolve, it is strained, and the filaments separated from it.

On the river Ural, where the Cossacks prepare *ichthyocalla*, or fish-glue, in the greatest quantities, the fresh sounds are washed and laid out in the air to dry, so that the outer skin lies undermost and the silver white, inner skin upwards, by which means the latter is easily separated, then put into a moist cloth and forcibly kneaded with the hands: then they are rolled one after another, and drawn to the form of a snake or a heart, between three pegs, on a board stuck full of them; and when they are somewhat dried in this situation, they are hung on lines in the shade until their moisture has entirely evaporated.

In Gurief a fine boiled fish glue is prepared, perfectly transparent; having the colour of amber, and is cast into slabs and plates.

On the Caspian, about the Oby, the Irtysh and other rivers, the fish glue is made in much the same manner, only that there, the sounds are cut in strips, and then rolled up.

Fish. The fisheries on the Sea of Azof and the Caspian, are very extensive and important. The whole northern coast of the Sea of Azof, from the Don to Perecop, is laid out in fisheries, to which occupation these districts are extremely favourable. They use nets that have a conical bag in the middle, in which the fish assemble; and one single draught, which generally lasts only six hours, yields frequently 60,000 fish. Among the most remarkable fish of these waters, are the sturgeon, the sterlet and the suruk; the two first species are cut lengthwise into pieces, dried and smoaked, and sent to Turkey, where they find a great demand.

Although the Sea of Azof is generally frozen from November until the last of March, Christmas is as busy a season as midsummer, for in the winter the greatest fishery is carried on; and a mild winter is ruinous. Holes are made in the ice at small distances, and the net passed under from each of these to the next, in succession, by means of a pole, until a large tract is enclosed.

Hides and Leather. No trade in Russia is of so ancient a date, and so extended, as the manufacture of leather. The excellent *yufts*, which are peculiar to Russia, are well known in Europe, and are in great demand. They have also the art of preparing several other sorts of leather, of extraordinary quality, such as red, yellow and black *saffians*, which are made of the skins of bucks and goats. Shagreen is a valuable kind of leather, the

preparation whereof is not in use with the other natives of Europe. It is made of horse and ass-hides, but no more than the hinder back-pieces are used for this purpose, which are cut off immediately above the tail, in nearly a semicircular form, about an archine and a half in diameter.

Iron in bars, various manufactures of iron, brass and copper; furs, skins, jasper; amethyst, garnet, quartz, agate, porphyry, and marble, vases, rings, bracelets, crosses, seals, snuff-boxes, ear-rings, knife handles, and other trinkets; and all the various products of the different governments of Siberia, are obtained at Taganrock, much cheaper than in the ports of the Baltic, as they are brought nearly the whole distance by water. This navigation proceeds from Selenga to the Baikal, and from the Angara, into the Yenissey, from that into the Oby, from the Oby into the Tabol; from the Tabol over a tract of land of about 400 versts, as far as the Trhussovaia; from this into the Kamma, from the Kamma into the Volga, down the Volga to Dubarka, Sarepta, Zaritzin, or other places of debarkation; then over land, a distance of only forty miles to the Don, where the merchandise is laden into boats, and transported to Nakhtshivan or Rostof, and from thence in lighters to Taganrock.

The articles destined for St. Petersburgh take the same route from Siberia, as far as the Volga, from whence the distance to the mouth of the Don is much less, and the facilities of transportation much greater, than to the ports of the Baltic.

Canvas, duck, sheeting, table cloths, napkins, bed-ticking, cables, the best kinds of cordage, the finest twine for sail making or any other purpose, madder, soda, linseed and fish-oil, nutgalls, saltpetre, feathers, pitch, tar, turpentine, butter, barley, rye, flour, oats, beans, peas, tobacco, salted beef and pork, soap, masts, spars, and ship timber are abundant.

The imports are similar to those of Odessa. The coasting trade of Taganrock is very considerable with the Crimea, Odessa, and the Turkish ports of the Black Sea. A number of vessels come from Trebisond, Sinope and the various towns on the eastern coast, from whence they bring *nardek*, a marmalade of grapes, and *becmissa*, syrup made from various fruits, by boiling them with honey, raisins of the sun, and copper. The latter is sent to Moscow, and all the former are used in the distilleries.

In the year 1817, three hundred and eighty seven vessels sailed from Taganrock with cargoes destined for Constantinople, the Archipelago and Mediterranean. The imports amounted to 8,240, 894 rubles, 5,582,248 of which was in gold and silver specie. The value of the exports was 11, 979,700 rubles. In the same year, one hundred and thirty two sail of vessels were employed in the coasting trade.

The Calmuck Tartars form very large settlements in the neighbourhood of Taganrock. Both Calmuck men and women are seen galloping their horses through the streets of the town, or lounging

in the public places. The women ride better than the men. The ceremony of marriage among the Calmucks is performed on horseback. A girl is first mounted, who rides off in full speed. Her lover pursues; and if he overtakes her, she becomes his wife, and the marriage is consummated on the spot; after which she returns with him to his tent. But it sometimes happens, that the woman does not wish to marry the person, by whom she is pursued, in which case she will not suffer him to overtake her, and it is asserted, that no instance occurs of a Calmuck girl being thus caught, unless she has a partiality for her pursuer. If she dislikes him, she rides "*neck or nothing,*" until she has completely escaped, or until the pursuer's horse is tired out, leaving her at liberty to return, to be afterwards chased by some more favoured admirer.

The Calmucks are well versed in the art of writing, and hold certain of their manuscripts even in veneration. In times of general calamity, as preventions of theft and intrusion upon each others property, a small flag staff is erected, in front of each tent, on which is suspended a banner of scarlet linen, containing in sacred characters, beautifully written, the law of the Calmucks. They preserve like all other oriental nations, many traditions respecting Alexander, the Macedonian conqueror.

The Calmucks are the Hippophagi of Pliny and the more ancient writers. Their number in the Russian empire has diminished, since the establishment of provincial governments, and the divisions of lands, owing to their being more confined to

limited situations. Frequent attempts have been made to induce them to form a regular settlement. Like all nomade tribes, they are so much accustomed to an uncontrolled and erratic life, that nothing but extreme indigence can compel them to cultivate land and reside in any fixed habitation.

The Calmucks are tall, athletic and revolting in their appearance. Their hair is coarse and black. They inhabit Thibet, Bucharia and the countries lying to the north of Persia, India and China; but, from their vagrant habits, may be found in all the southern parts of Russia, even to the banks of the Dnieper. The Cossacks alone esteem them, and intermarry with them.

Their tents are of a circular form with a hole at the top. They are constructed of canes, and covered with a thick felt, made of camel's hair, coarse woollen cloths, or neat and well made mats. In the Calmuck language they are called *Khabitka*, and being placed upon waggons during their migrations have given their name to the summer vehicles of Russia. Their amusements are dancing, hunting, wrestling, archery, and horse-racing. In winter they also play at cards, draughts, back-gammon and chess.

The country near Taganrock is a continuation of those steppes which abound in the south of Russia; affording pasture to several thousand cattle. Tumuli abound in all the steppes and in working the cliffs for the establishment of a magazine, where one of these mausolea had been raised, they found an arched vault, constructed of very large, square

bricks, and paved in a style of most exquisite workmanship, with the same materials.

The north shore of the sea of Azof is principally inhabited by the Nogay Tartars. The Russian towns on the coast, are Petrowskaia or Petrofskaia, and Maripol or Marianapoli.

PETROWSKAIA stands at the mouth of the small river Broda or Berda, which is very narrow and shoal. Notwithstanding this inconvenience, it is deemed practicable to make a good artificial harbour, at no great expense, as the sea is much deeper opposite the mouth of the river, than at Taganrock. Boats pass from Petrowskaia, through the Jenikalic sound, into the Sivash and go to Arabat.

MARIPOL is a place of some trade and stands in a very fine situation, near the river Kalmius, on the north shore of the gulf of the Don. It is inhabited by Greek merchants and mechanics. *Tumbosses*, or large barges, carrying from a thousand to fifteen hundred poods, can run up the mouth of the river. There are a number of these barges employed in the trade of Arabat, Taganrock, Caffa, Kertchy and Yenikale.

Fishing is extensively carried on by the inhabitants of Maripol and its environs, in which business a vast many boats are usually employed.

AZOF is a small town and fortress on the left bank of the most southern mouth of the Don.

It has always been supposed that the ancient city of Tanais, which had been built by the Greeks, existed either on the site of Azof, or in its immediate vicinity. The inhabitants amount to a small number, including the garrison, and it can no longer be considered of much commercial consequence. When the Genoese navigated the Black Sea, Azof fell into their possession and was the entrepot of their India trade, until they were excluded from the Euxine by the Turks. After being captured, burnt, rebuilt, razed and re-edificed by the Cossacks, Russians, and Turks, a number of times, since the year 1637, it has finally been suffered to go to decay, and is at present a mere military post.

The river Don, called Tuna by the Tartars, and Tanais by the ancients, who considered it as the boundary between Europe and Asia, is one of the largest rivers of Europe, and the only navigable river that flows into the Sea of Azof. It has its source not far from Tula in the government of Rezan, in the Ivan Ozero, or St. John's lake. It still divides the most eastern part of Russia in Europe from Asia. The course of the Don, exclusive of its windings and turnings, is computed at a thousand versts. Below Voronetz it is from three hundred to six hundred yards wide; and of sufficient depth, from the middle of April, to the end of June, for ships of burthen; but during the rest of the year the water is so low, that on several of the shallows it is only a few feet deep. In the spring floods it rises from sixteen to eighteen feet perpendicular, and the current is then very rapid. It flows for the most part through a flat country

covered with forests of pines and oaks. Its bed is generally sand, marl and lime; it flows very gently, except when the water is high, and has many small islands and sand banks. In almost all its characteristics, the Don bears resemblance to the Nile. It has the same regular inundation, covering a great extent of territory. The water drains off, and leaves the land dry by the month of July. The same aquatic plants are found in both rivers; and in particular the same tall flags, reeds and bulrushes, sometimes rising to the height of twenty feet. The manner in which they disembogue themselves into the sea by a plurality of embouchures, is again the same; forming several small islands, as in the Delta, filled with swamps and morasses. Both one and the other serve as boundaries to the principal quarters of the globe, washing the western frontier of Asia, and separate it from Europe and Africa. Its water is reckoned not very wholesome to drink, being turbid and chalky; yet it abounds in fish.

A tradition exists in the country, that Alexander the Great passed the Don and built a city or citadel, upon the river, at a place called Zimlaskaia, two hundred miles above Tscherchaskoy. Some traces of such a work are still said to exist. Clarke saw two plain pillars of marble, at General Orloff's house, which were actually brought from thence. Coins of Alexander are also found near those ruins.

Below Voronetz, the Don commonly freezes about November, but the ice goes off in February or March. In its course through the governments

of Rezan, Tambof, Voronetz and Ekatarinoslof, it takes up nearly three hundred rivers and streamlets, the principal of which are the Voronetz, the Khoper, the Donetz, and the Manitsh.

Of these, the Donetz is the most considerable. It takes its rise near Bielgorod in the government of Kursk, flowing as far as the province of Caucasus, through a fertile and very populous country, and empties into the Don, at Soletowskoi. It is navigable from the Isum, and has nearly the same water and the same kinds of fish with the Don. Where the Donetz receives the Lugan, are the Lugan iron works and cannon foundery, belonging to the crown, where excellent fossil coal has been found. From Lugan the emperor's cannon pass by water to the Black Sea.

The Voronetz has its origin in the government of Tambof, a fruitful region, abounding with beautiful forests of oak. Its banks are well inhabited, and copiously strewed with towns and villages.

The Don and its tributary streams are navigated a great distance by boats. The extensive country irrigated by these rivers, renders them of the highest importance to Russia. Their borders are almost one continued steppe, which produce wheat, rye, barley, hemp, flax, fruit, and vegetables in great abundance; and are thickly populated. There are upwards of a hundred cities, towns and villages situated on the shores of the Don and its numerous branches.

Peter the Great, among his other gigantic projects, intended to have united the waters of the

Don and the Volga by a canal. The survey was made by Perry, an English engineer, and according to his plan, the communication could be made by digging less than three miles, as two small rivers, the Lavla which falls into the Don, and the Camishinca, which falls into the Volga, were to be rendered navigable by sluices, the remainder of the distance, making the whole route about ninety three miles. A water communication between the Caspian and Euxine seas, is of such consequence to the empire, that not many years will elapse before it will be effected, as every measure calculated to facilitate the internal commerce of Russia, receives the constant attention of the present sovereign.

The most important towns on the Don are Rastof, Nakhtshivan, Tscherchaskoy, Kasankaia, Dobrinka and Voronetz.

RASTOF stands on the north bank of the Don, about forty versts from the sea. The fortress of St. Demetri Rastof, is just above the town. It is an extensive work and was a place of great importance when the Turkish frontier was nearer, and is still garrisoned. The Don is here broad and deep; in consequence of which the boats from Voronetz, unfit to encounter the sea, are broken up, and their cargoes shipped on board lighters, and sent to Taganrock. Some of these vessels are large enough to perform the voyage to Arabat and Caffa. The governor, both of Azof and Taganrock, resides at Rastof, although those places have each their superiour officer, who is called *Commandant.*

Fish are caught here in great abundance, and variety. There is a large brewery producing porter and beer. The distilleries are numerous. Below Rastof are five remarkable tumuli, much larger than the usual appearance of others near the river, and which from time immemorial have borne the appellation of *The Five Brothers.* They are on the European side of the Don. Clarke is of opinion, if Ptolemy's position of the *flexion of the Tanais* can be reconciled with the site of that remarkable deviation of the river from its course, which forms the Dead Danoetz, that those tombs are the actual monuments to which he alludes under the name of the Altars of Alexander. The Altars of the Greeks were called *Altaria* by the Romans *ab Altitudine,* from their being raised high above the ground. In low flat countries they raised artificial ascents for their altars. The Greeks offered sacrifices upon the sepulchres of the dead, as upon altars. Ptolemy places the Altars of Cæsar still nearer to the position of these mausolea. To one or the other of them, they will, probably, hereafter be referred.

NAKHTSHIVAN is a large Armenian town a mile above Rastof. The Armenians who emigrated from the Crimea, after Souvarof withdrew his army, and peace was concluded with the Tartars, had this position assigned them, and were invested with the same privileges as their countrymen at Astracan.

Nakhtshivan offers an example of that enterprising spirit, so characteristic of the Armenian merchants, when stimulated by the hope of gain. They are not naturally a lively race of men. They have almost the gravity of Turks. Yet, when instigated by commercial speculations, they penetrate all countries and overcome all obstacles, frequently making journeys over land to India and China, and the most distant regions of the Globe. The women are beautiful and the men are also handsome, but they have a Jewish expression in their countenance. The Russians dislike them and have a proverb, "Two Jews equal an Armenian; two Armenians one Greek; two Greeks one Devil." But the Armenians are a favoured sect by the Russian government; and many of the noblest families have a mixture of their blood.

In the year 1800, Nakhtshivan contained two thousand families. It had four churches and four hundred shops. The quarter of the town in which the shops are stationed is a very lofty, covered street, surrounding a square, after the manner of the palais royal of Paris. Every trade has its peculiar place assigned, as in the Turkish bazars of Constantinople. The shops are well filled. The owners, in many instances are Mahometans who manufacture slippers, sandals, and boots of coloured leather. There are a variety of tradesmen and mechanics established here, such as tobacconists, pipe-makers, clothiers, linen drapers, grocers, butchers, bakers, blacksmiths, silk mercers, dealers in India shawls, and all the fabrics and products of

Europe and Asia. The crowds passing through the streets resemble a masquerade, in which the costly embroidered vestments of rich Armenian merchants, are contrasted with the skins which cover the wild Tartars, the long pelisses of the Turks, the military garb of the Cossacks, the uncouth trappings of the Calmucks, the uniforms of the Russians, the costumes of the Greeks, and of the individuals of the different christian nations of Europe. The banks of the Don in the vicinity of the town are covered with extensive vineyards.

When the most opulent Armenian merchants and mechanics, together with the major part of the christian inhabitants, upon whom the whole of the productive industry and commerce of the Crimea depended, left that peninsula, it was late in the autumnal season. The empress Catharine ordered proper buildings and accommodations to be prepared for their reception upon the Don, but the work was not completed according to the intentions of the sovereign, and when the Armenian colony arrived, they found only a parcel of miserable huts. These they have since converted into neat comfortable houses, many of which are of lime-stone and covered with tiles, in the manufacture of which, as well as of pottery in general, the inhabitants are skilful. Other Armenian settlements, belonging to the district of Rastof, are in the neighbourhood, and all of them in a flourishing state. Their industry, sobriety and good moral conduct, render them a most important acquisition to the empire. Their whole population, in this district, seventeen years since, amounted to eight thousand.

These Armenians supply all the fairs of the neighbouring provinces, which are the most extraordinary spectacles in Europe, because attended by persons from almost every nation upon the earth. There is scarce a people, refined or barbarous, who have not their representatives at the fairs held along the Sea of Azof, and upon the Don; but particularly at the great fair of Nakhtshivan. The third of the four great diamonds in the world, now set in the imperial sceptre of Russia, was purchased of Grigore Shafros, an Armenian merchant, who settled in this place. It belonged to the regalia of the Persian sovereign, Shah Nadir, and was called "The Moon of the Mountain." It was stolen by the soldiers, at the time of his death, and purchased at Bagdad, of a chief of the Angorians, by Shafros, for a small sum. Count Orloff, as agent for Catharine II. purchased it, and gave him 399,600 dollars ready money, an annuity of about eighteen thousand dollars, and a grant of nobility. The diamond is without flaws or faults of any kind, and weighs 193 carats. Its form is that of a flattened ovoid, and is about the size of a pigeon's egg.

At the fairs of Nakhtshivan the *Hamaxobii* of Herodotus make their appearance, exactly as they lived at the periods of the invasions of Sesostris and Darius; travelling in vehicles, the coverings of which are tents by night, and tilts for their cars by day. Such moveable dwellings may be noticed in all the territories of the Tartars. That historian observes "the Scythians have one observance, which for its wisdom excels every thing, I have

met with, for they have no towns nor fortified cities; their habitations they carry along with them, and they support themselves, not by agriculture, but by their cattle; their constant abode may be said to be in their waggons. How can a people, so circumstanced, afford the means of victory, or even of attack?" Such moveable dwellings, after a lapse of upwards of three thousand three hundred years, are now seen in all the territories of the Tartars, within the limits of ancient Scythia.

TSCHERCHASKOY. The territory occupied by the Cossacks of the Don, extends down the river to Nakhtshivan. The appearance of Tscherchaskoy, their capital, as the traveller approaches it on the river, affords a most novel spectacle. It stands on some marshy islands, fifty six miles from the mouth of the river. Although not so grand as Venice, it somewhat resembles that city. The entrance is by broad canals, which intersect it in all parts. On either side, wooden houses built on piles, appear to float on the water, to which the inhabitants pass in boats, or on narrow bridges, only two planks wide, with posts and rails, forming a causeway to every quarter of the place.

The town is divided into eleven stanitzas, and contains fifteen or twenty thousand inhabitants. The number of houses amounts to three thousand. There are seven churches; four of stone and three of wood. One, of the latter description, is for Tartar worship, the Tartars having a stanitza in Tscherchaskoy peculiar to their own people.

Their religion is Mahometans, and their church is perfectly plain.

The first church erected in Tscherchaskoy was founded by Peter the Great, but it has suffered frequently from fire. It is now of stone, and is splendidly painted and gilded on the inside and covered with pictures. In this church are kept what they call their *regalia;* applying the term to republican, rather than to regal ensigns of distinction. They consist of presents from different sovereigns, standards, and embroidered flags bearing the imperial arms; lances, silver headed staves, for their atamans; rich and beautiful manuscripts, chiefly certificates of the brave conduct of their people in war, sent as testimonials by the sovereigns, whom they had served; and a map of their territory, by the hand of the empress Catharine. The standards she presented them are exceeding costly. Among the rich staves of ebony, superbly adorned, is one without any ornament, given by Peter the Great. Of this they are more proud than of all the rest.

There is another stone church in which is erected an altar skreen of great magnificence, which if not equal to any thing of the kind in Russia, is certainly an astonishing piece of workmanship for that part of the world. It is built in the Grecian taste, and consists of fourteen Corinthian columns, covered entirely with burnished gold. There are besides similar pilasters, with paintings in the modern style.

The other public buildings, which are principally of wood, are the Chancery, the Sclavesnesat, where a court is held, the public Academy, in which the youth receive instruction in geometry, mechanics, physics, geography, history and arithmetic; the Apothecaries Hall, the Town Hall, and six prisons, four for males and two for females.

The shops are very numerous and kept chiefly by Greeks. These contain the products of Turkey, Russia and most parts of the world. There are two public baths in the town, and each stanitza has its respective tavern for liquors, brandy, wine, &c. and its *traiteur* or cook's shop for victuals.

The Cossacks of the Don, according to the account which the best instructed among them give of their own people, are a mixture of various nations, principally of Circassians, Malo-Russians, Prussians, Tartars, Poles, Greeks, Turks, Calmucks and Armenians. In the town of Tscherchaskoy alone and in the same street, may be seen all these different people at once, and each in the habit peculiar to his nation. A considerable portion of the inhabitants have ever been refugees. Concerning the first establishment of their town, they relate that it was founded by refugees from Greece, to whom the people of Azof denied admission, and who, in consequence, proceeding farther up the river, came to this island, on which they made their settlement; giving to it a name derived from the people upon whose frontier it was situated, and with whom they afterwards intermixed. The name of the town, although pronounced Tscherchasky, is

written Tscherchaskoy, which implies, "*The small village of the Tscherchas,*" pronounced generally Tscherchess, or, as we write it, Circassians. Koi, or Koy, in the Tartar language, signifies *a small village ;* and is, therefore, often the terminating syllable in the name, of places in that country. Thus, from a small settlement of rovers, augmented principally by intercourse with the neighbouring Circassians, has since accumulated, like a vast *avalanche,* the immense horde of the Cossacks. Before the middle of the tenth century, they had already reached the frontier of Poland, and began an intercourse with the people of that country, which was often attended with an augmentation of their horde, by the settlement of Polish emigrants among them. Their first distinguished armament is said to have been in the year 948, when the Greek emperor employed them as mercenaries in his war against the Turks. From their address in archery, their neighbours had given them the name of *Chozars* and *Chazars,* under which appellation they are frequently mentioned by Constantine Porphyrogenetes, and their country called *Chazaria.* The Greek emperor, for the services they rendered, sent them with assurances of protection, and recommendatory letters to the Polish sovereign, requesting that, in future, their appellation might be *Cossacks,* and not Chozars.

So general became the migrations of this people, that their tribes are now found from the banks of the Dnieper to the remotest confines of Siberia. According to their different emigrations and settle-

ments, they are at present distinguished by the various names of Malo-Russian Cossacks, Don Cossacks, Cossacks of the Black Sea, of the Volga, of Grebenskoy, of Orenbourg, of the Ural Alps, and of Siberia, where they have received yet other appellations, and extend even to the mountains of China, and the eastern ocean.

Nothing has contributed more to augment the colony of the Don Cossacks, than the freedom they enjoy. A sage regulation in their military constitution, from a very early period, induced them to grant all the privileges they enjoy, to such of their prisoners of war as chose to settle among them.

In the year 1579, they made their appearance, for the first time, in the Russian armies.

The Cossacks have no nobility, consequently no vassals. Their government is republican. All are equal and may reciprocally command and obey. "*Free as a Cossack,*" is a proverb in Russia. They elect their superiours from their own body. The government of the armies of the Don is regulated by the Emperor of Russia, who appoints the commander in chief. Their territory, which is principally pasture land, is divided into stanitzas or cantons. To each of these, a certain portion of land and a fishery is allotted by the Russian government. They are free from all taxes. The distribution of land, in each stanitza, is settled by the inhabitants, and their ataman, or chief, who is chosen by the people, is both civil and military commander of the district.

The whole number of Cossacks, within the dominions of Russia, liable to do military duty, amounts to 200,000. Food, pay and camp equipage are furnished them by the government. They may be called on to serve for any term, not exceeding three years, in any part of the world, mounted, armed and clothed at their own expense. After twenty years of service, they are exempted from all military duty, except in their own country.

The weapons of the Cossacks are a lance headed with steel, about a span long, with a shaft of ten or eleven feet in length, a sabre, a carbine, pistols, or a bow and arrows. The lance is decorated with a small banner, just below the point. Their saddle is merely a wooden frame, under which they lay a piece of felt. They are all expert horsemen.

There is something extremely martial in the appearance of a Cossack. His dignified and majestic look; his elevated brows, and dark mustaches; his tall helmet of black wool, terminated by a crimson sack, with its plumes, laced festoon, and white cockade; his upright posture, the ease and elegance of his gait; give him an air of great importance. Their habit consists of a blue jacket edged with gold and lined with silk, fastened by hooks across the chest. Beneath the jacket is a silk vest, the lower part of which is concealed by the sash. Large and long trowsers, either of the same material as the jacket, or of white cotton or linen, fastened high above the waist, cover their boots. Their hair is cut short round the head.

The sash is sometimes yellow, green or red, though generally black, and they wear large military gloves.

The commerce of Tscherchaskoy is very various. The principal articles of export are fish, iron, caveare, and wine. The Cossacks use little or no tobacco, and live to a very advanced age. The merchants of the place, when it is their turn, go to war like the rest, and have their rank in the army. In fact there are few generals in the army of the Don Cossacks, who are not merchants. In Tscherchaskoy they live an amicable and pleasant life. Sometimes they have public amusements, such as balls and parties of pleasure. They are remarkably cleanly in their houses and persons. The dress of their women is singular. It differs from all the costumes of Russia. They wear a rich cap, resembling the mitre of a Greek bishop, adorned with pearls, gold and flowers. The dress of the Cossack girls is elegant; a silk tunic, with trowsers fastened by a girdle of solid silver, yellow boots, and an Indian handkerchief round the head.

The common dress of the men is a blue jacket, with a waistcoat and trowsers of white dimity; and a Cossack is never seen in a dirty suit of clothes. Their hands are always clean; their teeth white; and their skin has a healthy appearance. The natives of Tscherchaskoy are polished in their manners, instructed in their minds, hospitable, generous, disinterested in their hearts, humane and tender to the poor, good husbands, good fathers, good

wives, good mothers, virtuous daughters, valiant and dutiful sons. In conversation the Cossack is a gentleman; for he is well informed, free from prejudice, open, sincere and upright. Both men and women are tall and handsome. Most of the richer Cossacks have houses in the capital, but pass the greater part of their time at their farms, on the southern bank of the river.

In the territory of the Don Cossacks there are thirty thousand Calmucks.

VORONETZ, or Woronetz, is situated at the confluence of the rivers Voronetz and Don, and contains upwards of fifteen thousand inhabitants. In the time of Peter the great, when that monarch went to Voronetz to build his first ship of war, there were scarce a hundred wooden huts in the place. It is now a very handsome town; and its commerce entitles it to considerable distinction. By means of the Don, it possesses an easy intercourse with the Black Sea. Every year, vessels go laden to Tscherchaskoy with corn; and they accomplish their voyage in about two months. In winter they receive merchandise by sledges from the Crimea and Turkey. Its merchants travel into Siberia for furs, and then carry them to the ports on the Black Sea, and even to the fairs of Francfort. Sometimes they pursue their course even to the coasts, opposite England and purchase hard ware, cottons, japanned ware, &c. with which they travel to all parts of Russia.

Voronetz, from its remarkable situation, is particularly qualified to become a great capital. It is placed so as to enjoy the advantages, both of warm and cold climates, and holds an intercourse with all parts of the empire. Nature is so bountiful to it in the summer, that plants, found in every southern latitude, grow there almost without care. The vineyards of Europe terminate many degrees nearer to the equator, and yet the vine flourishes at Voronetz, which is in the fifty fourth degree of north latitude. The cherry, the apple and the pear tree grow wild in the forests around the town. The winter regularly begins in December and ends the middle of March. The autumn resembles a moderate summer.

The town is placed on a very lofty, steep and sloping elevation, to which nature has given the appearance of a rampart; so that viewed from the river below, it looks like a prodigious, artificial fortification. The streets are very wide, and small lanterns are dispersed about upon posts, to light the town.

The citadel is on the opposite side of the Voronetz, furnished with one hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, and a large garrison.

Not far below the city, on a low island, are the dock yards, established by Peter, in the year 1705, where large ships and small vessels are now constructed, for the navigation of the Black Sea.

Peter resided at Voronetz, and as King and carpenter, superintended his works in that place; and at the same time he was also engaged in build-

ing Petersburgh. He erected a little wooden hut for himself, and a small church, on the side of the river, opposite the naval arsenal.

Iron is one of the principal articles of trade in the town, and occupies the chief business of the shops. They also manufacture large quantities of cloth, and have a building for the preparation of vitriol. Tallow is exported in great quantities. In the magazines where it is prepared they make use of the cattle of the country, and, boiling them down, make two sorts of fat. The first is for foreign markets; and the second consumed in Russia, in the soap manufactories.

In return for the products sent down the Don, they receive raisins, figs, wines and various other articles. The carriers of Voronetz go every three years to Tobolsky in Siberia, which is a rendezvous for all caravans, bound to Kiatka, on the frontier of China. From Tobolsky they form one immense caravan to Kiatka. Afterwards returning to Tobolsky, they disperse, according to their several routes. From Siberia they bring furs; from Kiatka, Chinese merchandise of all sorts.

The Chinese, upon their arrival at Kiatka, also furnish them with the productions of Kamtschatka, brought from St. Peter and St. Paul. Thus laden, many of them set out for Francfort, and bring back muslins, cambrics, silks, the porcelain of Saxony, and the manufactures of England and France.

TAMAN stands on the island of that name, on the Asiatic side of the Cimmerian Bosporus, oppo-

site Yenikale, from which it is distant twelve miles. It has properly no harbour, and the road is not safe; hence the produce, which it might receive from the provinces north of Mount Caucasus, by the Cuban, take a different route, and it has but little trade.

At some future period a commercial city will no doubt be established, on some part of the coast, between the mouths of the Cuban, as the country through which that river flows, is capable of the highest cultivation, and when settled by industrious enterprising people, will render a sea port indispensable.

THE

GOVERNMENT OF GEORGIA.

The Government of Georgia, or Grusinia, extends along the north eastern shore of the Black Sea from the mouth of the Cuban, to the river Bathus, which separates it from Amasia. On the east it is laved by the Caspian Sea; the governments of Taurida and Caucasus, bound it on the north; and the rivers Kur and Aras,* and Persia and Amasia on the south.

This territory includes the provinces of Circassia, Georgia, Mingrelia and a part of Armenia, Guriel, Imiretta and Abascia.

Circassia is the southern district of the ancient Asiatic Sarmatia, and is bounded on the south by Mount Caucasus, and east by the Caspian Sea.

The Circassians, in general, live in villages, which they abandon from time to time, on account of their insecurity, or their inconveniences. When they build at any distance from water, they conduct a canal by embankments, from the nearest brook. They erect their habitations near together, in one or more circles or parallelograms; so that the area within each constitutes the common spacious yard for cattle; this has only a single gate and is surrounded, and in some sort defended, by the houses.

* The Araxes of the ancients.

The men usually dwell in a separate apartment, and do not willingly appear with their wives in the presence of strangers. The Circassians are a handsome people. The men are commonly tall, slim, very slender above the hips, small in their feet, and stout in their arms. They have a Roman and martial air. The women are generally well made, fair complexioned, dark haired, regular in their features, and among them are more beauties than frequently occur among unciviiized people. They are very cleanly in their villages and houses, as also in their clothes and diet. It is a known fact, that a corset or broad leather belt is sewed from below the breasts to the hips; among the more distinguished persons, it is fixed with silver or gold clasps. This cestus must not be laid aside till the wedding night, when the bridegroom himself removes it with a sharp sword. For the sake of their shapes, the girls are kept low, being supported only with a little milk and cake. According to the Circassian and also the Turkish ideas of beauty, a woman should be very small over the hips.

The men also endeavour to render the waist excessively slender, by the belt to which the sabre is suspended. They have all very small feet, from enclosing them in socks of morocco leather.

The chiefs have no business but war and the chase. The knights keep the people in order, and are in nothing bound to the chiefs or princes, except in military service. The peasants, or subjects, who yield blind obedience to the princes or knights,

and hold life and property at the will of the former, are transmitted by inheritance. These people and the slaves taken in war, who afterwards fall into the class of the commonalty, plough the land feed the herds, carry wood, build the habitations, reap, and make hay, which in winter is commonly eaten on the spot.

The Prince, although he be bound by no laws, must endeavour to deserve the love of his subjects, and their attachment in war, by liberality, hospitality and kindness. On occasions of great undertakings, he assembles the nobles, and by them the decisions of the assembly are notified to the people.

The two opposite customs of hospitality and *lex talionis* are held sacred among the Circassian knighthood. The former is reduced to fixed principles, and every one who finds himself under their protection, is perfectly secure against all molestation. The host guards him with his own and his people's life; furnishes him with an escort; is answerable for him to his kinsmen; and the murder of, or insult towards the guest, is punished as severely as in the case of a relation. A stranger who puts himself under the protection of a woman, or can touch the breast of a woman with his lips, were he an enemy, or even the murderer of a relation, is spared and protected as if he were a member of the family.

The *lex talionis* is just as conscientiously practised among the Circassians. The next heir or nearest in blood, even though at the time he be a child, must take vengeance either openly or by

guile, for the murder of a kinsman, if he will not be expelled from society. The price of blood is called *Thlil Uesa ;* Princes and nobles however, accept no price, but require blood for blood.

The education of the children of the princes is calculated, from the earliest infancy, to stifle every feeling of affection. Sons and daughters are delivered on their birth to some nobleman. The parents, particularly the fathers, never see the boy till he is capable of bearing arms, nor the girl till after she is married. These customs, and that, which prohibits husbands under pain of infamy, from publicly conversing with their wives, are supposed to be derived from the Amazons and Gargarenes, who are placed by ancient geographers in the country now occupied by the Circassians.

The Circassians practise agriculture and particularly pasturage. They principally sow millet, of which they not only make various preparations of food, but also a liquor which they call hanthups. They likewise cultivate maize, wheat and barley. They plant several garden vegetables. The women make a very stout yarn out of the wild hemp.

The care of horses constitutes the most important department of their rural economy. To this they attend with as much care and zeal as the Arabs.

The language of the Circassians is common to them with the other neighbouring Tartars, although the chief people among them are not ignorant of the Russian.

They have few manufactures. They make some very fine cloths and felt for cloaks, which is singularly light and durable; to these may be added a few articles of leather, and embroidered housings for horses. Their beautiful coats of mail are brought from Persia, and their fire arms from Kubescha. The principal traffic of the Circassians consists in slaves, honey, wax, skins of cattle, deer and tigers.

Georgia includes the ancient territory of Albania and the eastern part of Iberia. It is bounded by Circassia on the north, Imiretta on the west, Armenia on the south, and is washed by the Caspian on the east. Daughistan and Shirvan constitute a part of this province. It enjoys a happy climate, with great fertility of soil. The air is dry, very warm in summer, and cold in winter. Fine weather commences in the month of May and continues till the end of November. The corn and fruits are excellent; and the pastures feed a great number of cattle. The game is of good flavour, and the wild hogs are delicate. Vines are cultivated and the inhabitants make wine, which they sell in Armenia and Persia. Silk forms a considerable branch of trade.

The Georgians have been successively subject to the Russians and Turks, and tributary to the monarchs of Persia, who retained great numbers of them in their service.

Tamas Kuli Khan upon his return from the conquest of India, invested prince Heraclius, who em-

braced the Mahometan religion, with the government of Georgia. He had been previously dispossessed of his sceptre by prince Alexander. The Turks long contended with Tamas Kuli Khan for the sovereignty of Georgia, and the other divisions of mount Caucasus. About the same time the people inhabiting around the Caspian Sea, submitted to the Persian chief, but renewed their allegiance to their natural lords, after his death.

Prince Heraclius, who is celebrated for his bravery and other great qualities; as well as by the important part which he acted during the disturbances that agitated Persia, after the death of Tamas Kuli Khan, submitted in the year 1783 to the Russian empire, but in 1787 he was compelled to renounce his connexion with that nation, and acknowledge himself tributary to the Porte. He soon after died at a very advanced age. Within a few years the Russian interest revived, and in February 1801, Georgia was, by a public ukase, united to that empire.

The Georgians avoid all communication with the Tartars, and have distinguished themselves, as the most numerous and powerful body of mountaineers of Caucasus.

The inhabitants of Georgia, when it was one kingdom, were christians, but after the year 1639, they were blended with the Mahometans; the king of Persia, having conquered the country, obliged the people to embrace the Mahometan religion. But since they have been under the protection of Russia, they have again avowded themselves christians.

The Georgians excel in the use of the bow, and are reputed to be the best soldiers in Asia. They are distinguished from other races by their physiognomy; they almost all have a fine figure, regular features, and an air of dignity. Mild in temper, of an open character, and possessing a generous spirit; they are yet furious when provoked.

The women are celebrated for their beauty, they have large black eyes and rosy cheeks. According to the laws of war in Turkey, any province which revolts is given up to pillage, and the inhabitants are reduced to slavery. In consequence of this custom, which prevails throughout Asia, Georgia and Circassia, have supplied Constantinople with slaves; though it is said, that the Circassians alone have the honour of being admitted into the bed of the Sultan. This supply of female slaves was continually furnished by the Lesgues Tartars, who were perpetually at war with these provinces. They carried over to the eastern coast of the Black Sea, the slaves they had taken, and sold them to the Turkish merchants, who came thither, at stated times, for this traffic. The inhabitants of this same coast likewise seized on their countrymen, in the neighbouring villages, and sold them; and children have sometimes been sold by their parents, and wives by their husbands.

Mingrelia, anciently a part of Colchis, is bounded on the north by Circassia, on the east and south east by Imiretta, on the south by Guriel, and on the west by the Black Sea and Abascia.

This country is woody, intermixed with a small portion of arable land, which is so soft as scarcely to bear the plough. The climate as well as the soil is relaxed by moisture. Mingrelia is watered by the Phasis, and a number of small rivers. The chief food of the inhabitants is "gom," a grain resembling millet.

Mingrelia was originally rich in gold. Ancient Colchis contained a great number of cities and towns, most of which have long since sunk into oblivion.

The vines of the county produce excellent wine, and the pastures feed many horses. The people are generally employed in the chase, and they think themselves peculiarly happy, if they possess a horse, a good dog, and a well trained falcon. The peasants are slaves to the nobility, who have the power of life and death over their vassals. Their religion is that of the Greek church. The principal commerce hitherto has been in slaves.

Mingrelia contains mines of copper and iron, and immense forests, affording excellent timber for ship building. The Mingrelians are generally well formed and handsome. The women resemble the fair haired Georgian beauties.

Guriel is bounded north by Mingrelia, from which it is separated by the Rione, on the north east by Imiretta, east by Armenia and elsewhere by the Black Sea. It was governed by a prince dependent on Turkey, before Russia extended her empire over the territory. With respect to soil,

climate, and the manners of the inhabitants, it much resembles Mingrelia.

Imiretta includes a part of ancient Iberia. It is bounded by Circassia on the north, east and south-east by Georgia, south by Armenia and west by Mingrelia. The country is poor and mountainous. The inhabitants are wanderers, without industry or any commendable qualities.

Abascia is bounded north by Circassia from which it is separated by a branch of Mount Caucasus, east by Mingrelia, and elsewhere by the Black Sea. The manners of the people are rude and barbarous. The men are robust and active, and the females fair and beautiful. They are christians only in name; but in their customs resemble those of the Mingrelians. They trade in furs, the skins of the deer and tyger, linen yarn, boxwood, honey and bees-wax; but their principal traffic heretofore consisted in the sale of their own children, to the Turks, and to one another.

That portion of Armenia which lies north of the rivers Bythus and Aras, including a part of ancient Colchis, was attached to the Russian empire in 1817.

The Caucassian mountains, which are the highest and most extensive range in the northern part of Asia, and which the ancients considered as a continuation of mount Taurus, extend through the Government of Georgia, from near the mouth of the river Cuban, in the north west, to the outlet of the river Kur, into the Caspian Sea, in the south-

east. A chain extends from Caucasus south-west to the vicinity of the bay of Scanderoon. This ridge seems to have been the Antitaurus of antiquity, various parts of which have been known by different names. At the other extremity of the Caucasus other chains branch out into Persia, which they pervade from north north-west to south-east; but terminate in the deserts of the south-eastern part of that kingdom.

The Caucasian mountains as far as they have been explored, within the Russian dominions, are an alpine range, extending between the Euxine and Caspian Seas, in length about three hundred miles. As they approach both seas, they very much decline. The whole range has a tract of about five miles in breadth, at the greatest elevation of the chain, which is covered with perpetual ice. Its breadth, on the northern declivity, extends at most to fifty miles, and runs along the prodigious northern plain, which taken in the quadrature, measures one thousand miles; being bounded on the east by the Siberian, and on the west by the Valakhian mountains. The icy ridge of the Caucasus, as well as the others, at their highest points, consist usually of granite; the sides leaning towards the next mountains, of all kinds of slate; and the outward sides principally of lime-stone. Gold, silver, lead, copper and iron mines abound in these mountainous regions, also marble, jasper, alabaster, petroleum, rocksalt, and natron. Many of the extremely fertile vales of Caucasus furnish valuable woods, consisting of excellent forest trees

of various kinds. On the nothern side of these mountains the rivers Terek, Cuban, Kumana, and a number of smaller streams take their rise. We may therefore conclude, that mining will be begun and carried on to great advantage in those mountains, when the tribes that inhabit them, shall have attained a greater degree of civilization, and the miners can be protected against their ravages.

These mountain regions have been, from time immemorial, and still are, the habitations of bold and valiant warriors, who have with determined resolution resisted the reiterated attacks of the Mongols, Arabs, Persians, Tartars, and Russians; and maintained, in a considerable degree, their freedom and independence.

The various tribes of Mount Caucasus consist of a motley mixture of the original inhabitants, with colonies of their various conquerors. Among the inhabitants of the northern part, besides the Nogayans and Truchmenians, who are genuine Tartars, are the Circassians, Achasians, and Zichians, called by the Russians Yasi, three particularly numerous and nearly related tribes, composing the ground plat of most of the Caucasian nations. The Kumyks inhabit the plain bordering on the river Sunsha and Terek. In their territory are the famous hot-baths of Kitzliar.

The Tscheschengians or Mikschessians, live in the eastern part of the Great Kabardia, and in time of war can raise five thousand horsemen. The Kistenzians inhabit the Little Kabardia, whose force is nearly equal to that of the preceding peo-

ple. The Ossetinzians, or Osses, who probably sprang from the ancient Uzes or Polovtzes, occupy the middle part of the mountains. The Lesghians inhabit the eastern Caucasus. The Taulintzians occupy the summit of the mountains. The Amberlinians dwell in the vallies, formed by the mountains of Ghilan.

The sea-ports of Georgia are Anapa, Sagoudjak, Ghelindjak, Ananghia, Isgaoun, and Poti.

ANAPA, or Anaffa, is between eighteen and twenty miles, south east, from the mouth of the Cuban, on Sundgik bay. It is not a populous place, but the merchants are said to be rich. The trade carried on by the Abasses with the Crimea, attracts a number of vessels to the port. The Turks built small vessels at Anapa when they possessed the country. In the neighbourhood are seen the vestiges of a large city.

SAGOUDJAK is six leagues distant from Anapa, and stands at the end of a valley formed by a rivulet. It is not a place of much trade. Sagoudjak was the residence of a Turkish Pacha, and a fort was garrisoned by the Ottoman Porte for his protection.

GHELINDJAK is situated on a bay, which receives two small streams, and is defended by a fortress. The Caucasian mountains surround the port, which is eighteen miles from Sagoudjak. The

entrance to the harbour is about two thousand yards wide. The Turks had not commenced the establishment of settlements on the coast of Abascia, until a few years before the union of the country to Russia.

ANARGHIA is the most considerable town in Mingrelia. It is two miles from the sea on the Astolphus, one of the greatest rivers in the country. The natives call it Langun. It is said to stand on the site of the ancient city of Heraclea.

ISGAOUN, Isguria, or Iskuriah has a road for ships, which is tolerably good in summer. It was anciently called Dioscurias, and in process of time Sebastopolis. It was established, according to Arrian, by a colony of Milesians. In the earliest ages, it was the port most frequented in Colchis, by distant as well as neighbouring nations. It probably took the name of Sebastopolis during the reign of Augustus. It is the opinion of some writers, that Dioscurias was founded by Castor and Pollux, who made a voyoge to Colchis with Jason, and called *Aba.*

Isgaoun was burned down in the year 1072, by the Abasses, who were invited by the prince of Mingrelia to assist him against the Turks.

POTI or Puti is on the south bank of the river Rione, the ancient Phasis. This place has considerable coasting trade with the ports of the Crimea

Odessa, and Constantinople. The objects of commerce afforded by the ports of Georgia are timber, box wood, wool, silk, furs, butter, hides, wax and honey.

TEFLIS is the largest inland city, and was the capital of the principality of Georgia, and see of a bishop. According to an old inscription in the citadel it was founded by a certain prince Sarong in the year 1063. The city is situated on the north west side of the great plain of Karajoes, at the foot of a hill, occupying both banks of the river Kur, over which is a bridge. The Kur is the ancient Cyrus. It rises in the Caucasian mountains, and pursuing a rapid course through the province of Georgia and Shivran, falls into the Caspian Sea, seventy miles south west of Baku.

Teflis is surrounded with strong walls, flanked with towers, except towards the river; and has a large fortress, at the declivity of the mountains, which contains a garrison. All the houses are of stone, with flat roofs, which serve, according to the custom of the east, as walks for the women. The buildings are neat and clean, but the streets are narrow. The city contains one Roman Catholic, thirteen Greek, and seven Armenian churches. Near it are some warm springs, and there it is called Thelestokar, Warm-town. In the year 1386 this city was taken by Tamerlane, and the king of Georgia made prisoner. In 1723 it was taken by the Turks; and in 1734 retaken by Kouli Khan. Before it was taken by Aga Mahomed Khan, in 1797, it contain-

ed 4000 houses and 22,000 inhabitants. Although most of the houses are now standing, the population does not exceed 15,000 souls. It was for many years the residence of Prince Heraclias, and is at present, of the Russian governor and commander in chief.

The public square is spacious, and not inelegant, which serves for a market place. The palace, formerly occupied by the prince, is large, and surrounded by extensive gardens.

The Catholic mission have an establishment at Teflis possessed by Capuchin friars from Florence; and several monasteries, in which young women are placed by their parents till they can be settled in marriage. The nuns are not bound to perpetual virginity and residence in these monasteries; yet they are authorised to perform some of the clerical functions. They administer baptism and extreme unction. There are a number of schools in the city for the education of boys, who after learning to read and write become commonly either soldiers or husbandmen. They seldom turn their attention to trade, but leave this branch of employment to the Armenians, of whom great numbers are settled in Teflis.

The famous defile of Derbend, or Derbent, gives name to a city in the province of Daughistan. The defile is between a promontory of Caucasus and the Caspian Sea, and was anciently denominated the Caspian, or Albanian gates. The passage is closed by the intervention of the city of Derbend, which the Turks named Demircapi, or the gate of Iron, and the Arabs, Bab-al-Abuab or the Gate of Gates.

The city is said to have been built by Alexander the Great, and called Iskander. If credit is given to local tradition, it was founded by the Greeks; and this dangerous pass fortified by the kings of Persia, with a mole, double walls, and gates of iron. Czar Peter became master of it during the civil wars of Persia, and the empress Catharine II. took it, in 1780.

The city of Derbent forms an oblong square on the declivity of an eminence, and is divided into three sections, appropriated to different purposes, each having their distinct walls fortified with a number of round and square towers. The upper town, which is about half a mile square, constitutes the citadel, and is incomparably the strongest. The walls of the middle town are thirty feet high, near twenty feet thick at the foundation, and twelve or fifteen in the upper part. On the highest point stands the fort, which nature and art have contributed to render impregnable.

The inhabitants of Derbent are chiefly Persians, Tartars, and a few Armenians. On the south side of the town are many vineyards and gardens, which are continued for eight miles. The neighbourhood produces corn. It has some commerce. Shamakee, in the province of Shirvan, supplies this port with salt, and silk, both raw and wrought; but Baku is a more convenient harbour.

There are numerous small villages scattered along the Euxine coast of Georgia, besides those which have been mentioned; they are, however, of but little commercial consequence. At not a very

distant period, it may be presumed, that civilization will restore the ancient trade of these regions, and raise from their ruins those cities, which were celebrated for their wealth, and commercial enterprise, during the most splendid periods of the history of Egypt, Phœnicia, Greece, and Rome. On the flanks of Caucasus was rocked the cradle of the nautical Hercules, the Columbus of antiquity; and after a lapse of many thousand years, we behold his posterity, emerging from the most degraded state of ignorance and barbarism, preparing to emulate his adventurous periplus, and become competitors with the distinguished navigators of modern times. Possessing a country abounding in all the requisite materials for ship-building, and inexhaustible mines; blessed with a productive soil, irrigated by numerous rivers, which almost unite the Black and Caspian seas; happily situated for engrossing the trade of Persia; fortunate in their religion, having at a very early period become Christians; their march to refinement and prosperity, to a taste for agriculture, the arts, and the sciences, must be sure and rapid, under the fostering protection of Russia, whose sovereigns have been ambitious to meliorate the condition of their subjects, from the Gulf of Finland to the shores of Alaascar, and from the frozen ocean to the waves of the Euxine.

END OF VOL. I.

JAN 31 1934

VALUABLE BOOKS

PUBLISHED BY WELLS & LILLY.....*BOSTON.*

THE LIFE OF MARCUS TULLIUS CICERO. By CONYERS MIDDLETON, D. D. Principal Librarian to the University of Cambridge. In three volumes. From the London edition.

ELEMENTS OF THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE HUMAN MIND. By DUGALD STEWART, Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University, and Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh; Honorary Member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburgh; and Member of the American Philosophical Society held at Philadelphia. Second edition.

THE THEORY OF MORAL SENTIMENTS. Or, An Essay towards an analysis of the principles by which men naturally judge concerning the conduct and character, first of their neighbours, and afterwards of themselves. To which is added, *A Dissertation on the Origin of Languages.* By ADAM SMITH, LL. D. F. R. S. From the last English edition. Two volumes in one. Price $2 50 boards—$3 bound.

A KEY TO THE CLASSICAL PRONUNCIATION of Greek, Latin and Scripture Proper Names: in which the words are Accented and Divided into Syllables exactly as they ought to be pronounced, according to Rules drawn from Analogy and the best usage. To which are added, Terminational Vocabularies of Hebrew, Greek, and Latin Proper Names, in which the words are arranged according to their Final Syllables, and Classed according to their Accents; by which the general Analogy of Pronunciation may be seen at one view, and the Accentuation of each Word more easily remembered. Concluding with Observations on the Greek and Latin Accent and Quantity; with some probable conjectures on the method of freeing them from the obscurity and confusion in which they are involved, both by the Ancients and Moderns. By JOHN WALKER, Author of the Critical Pronouncing Dictionary, &c. &c.